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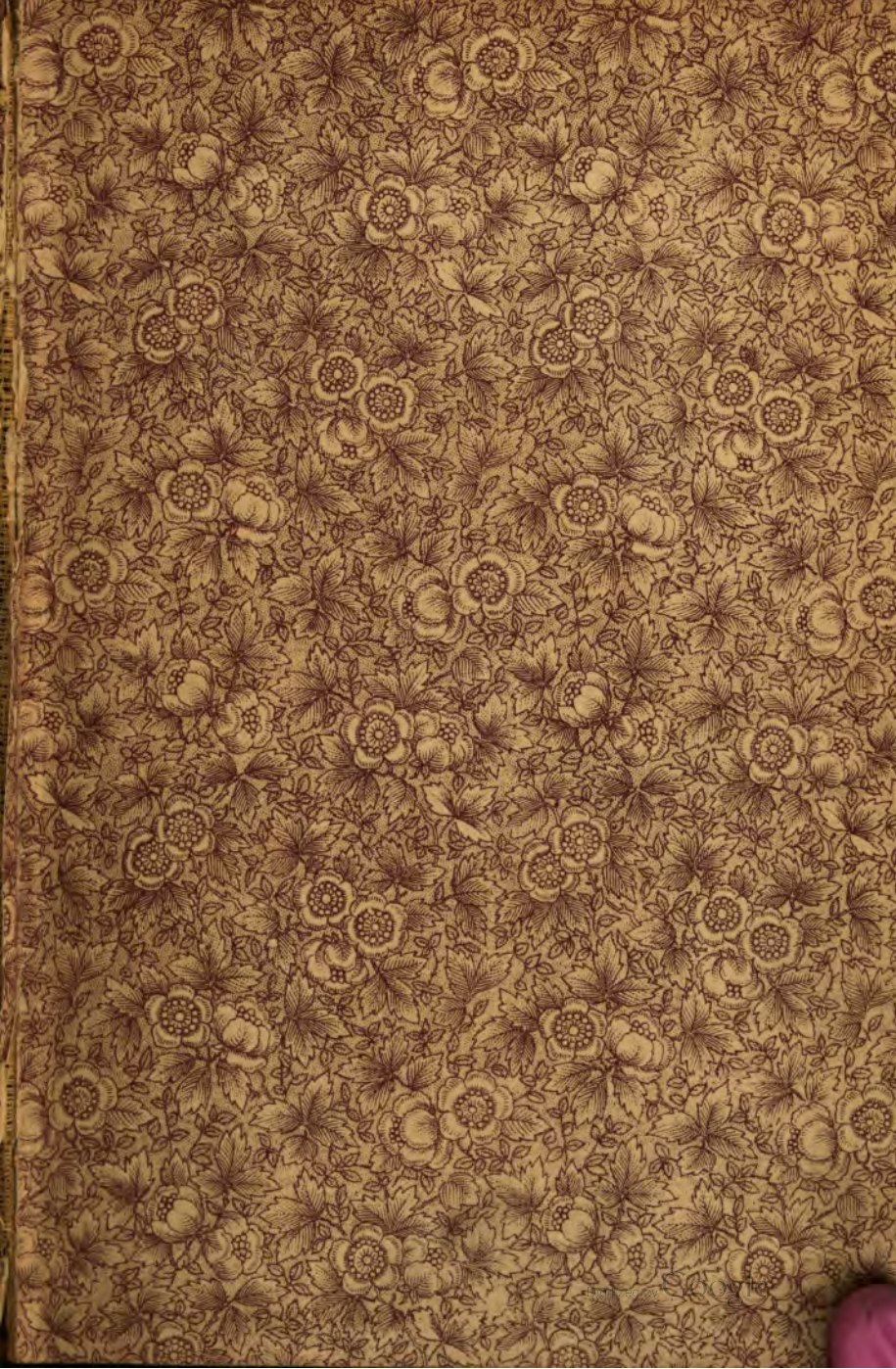


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NATAL

A FIELD FOR EMIGRATION



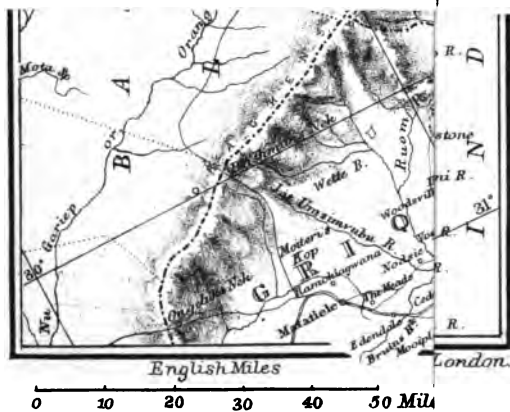


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NATAL

*ITS EARLY HISTORY, RISE, PROGRESS
AND FUTURE PROSPECTS*

AS

A FIELD FOR EMIGRATION

BY

WILLIAM KERMODE

OF NATAL

LONDON

TRÜBNER & CO., LUDGATE HILL

1882

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PREFACE.

‘I speak of Africa and Golden Joys.’—HENRY IV.

As emigration is one of the burning questions of the day, no apology is needed for the appearance of this little book on Natal by one who has lived there for many years, and hence claims to know the colony thoroughly. Several treatises have been published on Natal and on South Africa during the past few years, but these works either deal partially with most of the questions, or they are too bulky and expensive for popular use. Had there been any recent work of a parallel nature in existence, this little work would not have seen the light. The book is essentially one of facts, from which the reader can draw his own conclusions. The author is persuaded that the real interests of the colony will best be subserved by representations that will cause emigrants to be agreeably surprised rather than otherwise. If the writer has erred, it is from under, rather than from over, statement. It will be observed that the chapters on climate and that on the harbour works are the longest in the volume, but will be a reliable data for the intending emigrant. This arises not only from the importance of the subjects themselves, but also from the fact that foot-notes were considered necessary to give something like completeness to the work, and to justify the assertions made. The notes are either essential to or are intimately connected with the subject-matter of the text. It is hoped, therefore, that they will add to the value of the text, and not prove wearisome to the general reader. The writer is well aware of the difficulty attending the discussion of such subjects, but he has treated them in the manner that best approved itself to his mind, denuding the questions as far as practicable of minor or extraneous matter. All that has been said is of the highest importance to every

colonist. Other sections have been handled very briefly. They, however, could not have been more full without rendering the book, from its size, less convenient and useful, and the price would necessarily have been increased. As it is, although of a size to be conveniently carried in the pocket, the work contains information on almost every subject of utility and interest, brought down as closely as possible to the time of publication. The writer makes no claim to originality or literary excellence, but has simply aimed to reduce to some shape and form a mass of information useful and important to emigrants who lack the books of reference to which he has applied.

The colony offers a wide field for the settler who possesses fairly good health, shrewdness, and a moderate amount of capital; but even the latter is not absolutely necessary. In the colonies, as elsewhere, prosperity is only attained by sheer hard work, self-denial, with plucky endurance and perseverance. Natal is no more paved with nuggets or diamonds than London streets are paved with gold. Given those qualities, however, coupled with capacity, success is certain, and the settler can enjoy life as he goes on without the incessant toil and turmoil which is inseparable from all European countries. At the present time there are few places where capital and labour are likely to meet with more substantial reward than in Natal. The Government is secure and is in a fair way of becoming still more consolidated, as will be seen by a reference to the Appendix. Property is safe without the self-protecting influence of the bowie-knife and revolver, or the discomforts of a North American winter. All the resources and refinements of civilised life are available, and the climate itself leaves little or nothing to be desired. For consumptives, and those who suffer from chest complaints, Natal offers all the advantages of New Zealand, without its drawbacks. It is within little more than half the distance of the latter colony. This 'Guide' is the outcome of many years' residential experience of the colony; hence the statements may be taken as reliable in every respect. The writer has no ulterior object to effect in publishing it, as he is neither a land nor emigration agent. He trusts that in what he has written no undue prominence has been

given to views which are not shared by the bulk of Natal colonists. At the same time it is necessary to state that his expressions of opinion have not been stultified by official influences. Doubtless the book itself has faults both as to matter and manner, but it has been written honestly, according to the writer's own convictions, and he trusts that the forbearance usually extended to first efforts of authorship will be generously extended to him. Statistical literature is usually rather repellent, but it is hoped that the appendices will possess interest to some readers. They will at least show in what direction and to what extent progress has been made, notwithstanding the inadequate supply of labour, and the lack of capital and railway facilities to which colonists have necessarily been subject. The intelligent reader cannot fail to be convinced that a solid and expanding business is being done, and that this young colony contains all the elements of future prosperity.

In conclusion, the writer would add that his best thanks are due, and are hereby tendered, to the Curator of the Natal Botanical Gardens, Mr. William Keit, for the valuable meteorological abstracts which were so readily placed at his disposal. He would also express his appreciation of the courtesy shown by the Emigration Agent in London, Mr. Walter Peace. The map and illustrations have been specially prepared, whilst a carefully compiled index will, it is hoped, add to the value of this work.

'DUBLIN CASTLE,' DARTMOUTH,
June 9, 1882.

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NATAL.

CHAPTER I.

THE VOYAGE.

Preliminary Preparations for Voyage—Outfit—Sailing and Steam-Vessels—Lines of Steamers—Freight and Passage Fares—Terms and Conditions—Outfit—Directions—Conditions—Mal de Mer, Precautions against—Conclusion.

ASSUMING that a journey to Natal has been determined upon, either for business, pleasure, or the still more important one of a life settlement, a few words of advice as to outfit, preparation, and general guidance will not be out of place, coming as they do from one who has crossed the silver streak between the port of London and Natal on many occasions.

There can scarcely be two opinions as to the better mode of transit between steam-ships and sailing vessels. The former are quicker, safer, and more comfortable. The latter are cheaper, although the pecuniary advantage is not very considerable, unless in the matter of heavy freight.¹ Sailing vessels are, therefore, rarely used.² The choice of passage, therefore, is really between the two rival steam-ship companies—the Castle and the Union lines. Who intending passengers have to decide for themselves, they

¹ Goods taken in mail steamers are charged 10s. per ton weight and 5s. per ton measurement over the rates of freight by other steamers. The rates of freight by the latter varies from 45s. to 60s., according to the destination of goods, 10 per cent. being added for primage. The minimum charge for signing a bill of lading is 21s. Forms can be procured from Messrs. Field & Tuer, 50 Leadenhall Street, and both companies deliver cargo at Natal free of cost, except customs and harbour dues.

² Although in most cases a sea voyage performed by steamer is on several accounts preferable to one performed by sailing vessel, yet there are some cases where it would certainly be better for invalids to proceed by the latter. There are many sailing vessels built on fine lines, and superbly fitted up; there is, of course, an absence of the heat and smell inseparable from steamers, the thumping of the engines, and the tremor, vibration, and noise inseparable from machinery and screw-propellers. Thirty years ago the voyage from England to Natal occupied from two to six months, but now the time usually occupied is about three weeks, sometimes less.

will feel rather embarrassed. They will then probably be better able to understand the suspense in which the ass of Buridan was held between the equal attractions of two bundles of hay. Each company manifests a healthy competitive spirit, and deserves public support. Several of the vessels employed have been specially constructed by the most celebrated shipbuilders in Great Britain for the colonial trade, and some of them, such as the *Drummond Castle* of the Castle line, and the *Athenian* of the Union line, are beautifully modelled. Their saloons are spacious, airy, and well-lighted, and constructed with a view to great speed.

Some of the steamers have been constructed almost entirely of steel, which effects a considerable reduction in weight. Many are built with water-tight and fireproof compartments, and fitted with all the latest improvements, such as jet-condensers in place of surface condensers, steam capstans for working the anchor, steam winches with double gearing, steam apparatus for steering from the bridge, four-bladed screws, &c. They also have ladies' boudoirs, bath-rooms, smoking-rooms, and ice-rooms. Whilst the comfort, convenience, and ease of first-class passengers is abundantly insured, those who are less affluent, or who have a reluctance to enter the sumptuously furnished 'aft' saloons, will find that their wants have been taken into consideration in the second-class saloons. In all cases, those who wish to secure a snug berth in either of the saloons should apply at as early a date as possible, for, as a matter of course, the earlier the application the greater will be the choice. To secure a berth it is sometimes necessary to book a few weeks, or even months, prior to the advertised date of sailing. It may be mentioned, however, that there is no necessity for intending passengers to leave their homes until a few days before the day of sailing. In some instances, where the distance is not great, the same day would perhaps do. Many people have formed an idea that, quite apart from a personal examination of the steamer, there is some advantage in visiting the head-offices and securing their berths, but in reality there is none.

A cabin should be situated in that part of the saloon where the oscillation of the vessel is least felt, amid-ships, and on the starboard side. The nearer the cabin is to the centre of the steamer the less also will the quivering motion caused by the revolving screw-propeller be felt. Those berths that are fore-and-aft—not athwart-ships—are certainly the best. Children should be placed in the lower bunks which may be lowered with advantage to within about 10 inches of the floor. It is worthy of remark that each of the steamship companies have been singularly

exempt from accidents or serious loss of life at sea, which may be attributed to the care bestowed upon matters of detail by those concerned. The risk to life, however, by either steamer or sailing vessel, is almost too insignificant to mention. A railway journey of equal distance would perhaps involve quite as much if not greater risk.

Arrangements have been made with the Union Steam-ship Company and the Castle Packets Company for the conveyance of two mails a month each, so that at least one mail steamer leaves England every week. The Union Company's steamers start from Southampton on Tuesday, calling at Plymouth on the Friday to embark the mails and those passengers who may prefer to go on board there; while the steamers of the Castle line start from London on Tuesday of the week following, calling at Dartmouth on Friday for mails and passengers. The mails are forwarded by rail from London to Plymouth, or Dartmouth as the case may be, where they are transferred to the royal mail steamer, which proceeds on its voyage without delay, accomplishing the 6,900 miles to Port Natal in less than thirty days.

The standard of steam-ships is, however, being gradually raised. Some years back the time usually occupied by a steamer in going from England to the Cape was about thirty days, now the distance is generally accomplished in twenty-three days. The quickest passage on record is eighteen days sixteen hours. It is believed by some people that, by means of powerful steamers, the voyage to the Cape will yet be accomplished regularly in a fortnight. Notwithstanding the incredulity of many, it is not at all improbable, when we consider the speed that many of the great ocean liners have attained. In shipbuilding, as in all other industries, these are truly progressive days. When built expressly for colonial requirements large-sized steamers can—at certain states of the tide and of the bar—enter the harbour, and lay alongside the Point Wharf, where passengers are disembarked. When, however, large vessels are unable to enter the harbour, small steamers come alongside, and after the quarantine officer has given a clean bill of health, convey passengers and baggage to the Point, where the customs officers will be found ready to perform the unpleasant duty of overhauling the passenger's luggage in search of contraband goods.¹ As soon as this inspection is over and the packages passed, the new arrival can proceed by rail, tram-car, omnibus, cab, or otherwise to Durban, where first-class hotels and lodging-houses will be found.

¹ For a list of prohibited articles, see p. 208.

The rates of passage, which include a liberal dietary as well as the use of bed, bedding, and all cabin furniture, are—First saloon, 37*l.*; second saloon, 25*l.*; and third-class 18*l.*¹ Servants are taken by each company at second-class fares. Third-class passengers are carried by certain steamers, but special arrangements have to be made in advance. Each vessel carries a surgeon and stewardess, and an abundant supply of medical comforts, such as arrowroot, sago, wine, stout, preserved soups, &c. Meals for children are specially prepared at reasonable hours. Both companies land passengers and their luggage free of charge at Port Natal.² All further information regarding freight, passages, &c., can be obtained at the head-offices of the Union Steamship Company, 11 Leadenhall Street, London, E.C., and of the Castle Mail Packets Company, 3 & 4 Fenchurch Street, London, E.C., where plans of the saloon accommodation can be seen.

The intending passenger having decided which line of steamers or sailing vessels he will go by, the next consideration is the best time of the year to leave England. The answer has already been given in the section on *Climate*. Those who intend to pursue agricultural operations on their own account the same year should leave in April or May. But the period of departure in other cases need not be quite so early. Baggage should be packed in strong chests, measuring, say, not more than 3 feet 6 inches by 2 feet 6 inches and 2 feet 6 inches deep, and should not exceed, say, 1½ cwt. when packed. Each package should be numbered and the contents carefully noted. The passenger's name and destination in full should be distinctly painted on all boxes and packets. A card should be tacked on bearing this

<p>Mr. _____ Passenger to Natal, Per Steamship, From _____ Docks.</p>
--

direction: 'To be delivered at _____ Docks for Natal,

¹ Cheques to be drawn to the order of Messrs. Donald Currie & Co., and crossed _____ & Co.; or to the order of the Union Steamship Company, and crossed Williams, Deacon & Co.

² It may be mentioned that both steamship companies issue vouchers which enable passengers to travel by railway from London to Dartmouth or Plymouth first-class on payment of second-class fare, or second-class for third-class fare. Passengers joining at either of those places are conveyed to the ship free of charge by steam tender.

Steam-ship ———. Packages required in the cabin should be marked 'CABIN,' have handles, and not exceed, say, 12 by 18 by 36 inches (otherwise they will be too large to go under the bunks). Packages 'wanted on the voyage' should have those words painted on them. Those not required should be marked 'HOLD' or 'BELOW.' Boxes containing apparel should have airtight zinc or tin linings. As neither of the steam-ship companies are responsible for loss, damage, or detention of luggage unless a bill of lading is taken, it behoves passengers to look carefully after its shipment here, and landing on arrival at Port Natal. Of course, small packages and personal impedimenta, as hand-bags, valises, umbrellas, overalls, waterproofs, travelling-rugs, &c., remain entirely under the control of the passenger.

The following are the terms, conditions, and regulations under which passengers and their luggage are conveyed, and which are embodied in the contract for conveyance:—

TICKETS ARE NOT TRANSFERABLE.

1. Passage money includes the use of bedding, linen, and a good table. Wines, spirits, malt liquors, and mineral waters will be provided at moderate prices. No berth can be considered pre-engaged until half-passage money is paid, and the whole of the passage money must be paid before the passenger or his luggage can be embarked.

2. Children under twelve months old will be charged one-sixteenth of full passage money. Children above the age of twelve months and under the age of sixteen years will be charged one-sixteenth of the ordinary passage money for each year of their age. All above the age of sixteen years will be charged full passage money.

3. Passengers not embarking after having engaged a passage will forfeit half the passage money, whether deposited or not. In the event, however, of a passenger being unavoidably prevented from availing himself of the passage engaged, the Company will, where practicable, upon receiving sufficient notice, transfer the passage to one of the Company's subsequent vessels without forfeiture of any portion of the passage money.

4. Passengers may embark and disembark at Plymouth or Southampton at their own option, but all luggage must be shipped at Southampton Docks, and be sent there one day at least before the ship's departure.¹ The Company will not engage to take any excess of luggage over the regulated allowance unless room be previously engaged.

5. Each adult first-class passenger is allowed to carry luggage to the extent of 20 cubic feet free of charge, and children and servants are allowed luggage in proportion to the amount of passage money paid for them as com-

¹ All passengers' luggage and goods intended to go by the Castle Line should be delivered at the East India Dock Basin, Blackwall, London, E., at least one day previous to sailing, otherwise it is liable to be shut out. All luggage and goods forwarded from the country must be carriage paid, but the steam-ship companies pay dock dues. Freight must be prepaid.

pared with the full rate for adult passengers. For all luggage in excess of these allowances the Company will charge at the rate of 2s. per cubic foot. The Company will not be responsible for damage to, or loss of, or otherwise in respect of any luggage or effects of passengers, or servants, or children, where no special freight is paid for the same; but passengers may pay 1s. per cubic foot for all luggage put under the Company's charge (in addition to the charge of 2s. per cubic foot for extra luggage), in which case packages are to be labelled and numbered, and a receipt obtained for the same on shipment. Should a passenger during the voyage require any of the packages so labelled and for which a receipt shall have been given, the delivery to such passenger on board the ship or at any port of call or otherwise of such packages shall relieve the Company from all liability in respect of the same. In respect of luggage and effects for which special payment shall have been made and a receipt obtained, the liability of the Company will be limited to 10% for any single package, unless at the time of shipment the higher value of such package shall have been declared and a special rate paid to the Company in respect thereof. With a view to prevent mistakes on landing or transshipment, passengers are strongly recommended to mark each article with their name and destination in full, and any luggage which may be required during the voyage should be marked accordingly. Any passenger taking articles of a dangerous nature incurs a penalty of 100%, and in case of fatal results is liable to a criminal prosecution.

6. Passengers are not allowed to take on board wines, spirits, or other liquors, an ample stock being provided on board at moderate prices.

7. Merchandise and articles not being passengers' luggage cannot be carried under the name of luggage, and all merchandise and articles not being passenger's luggage, and shipped by passengers, will be charged double rates of freight. All specie, bullion, or other treasures carried by passengers, above the value of 50%, to be shipped as treasure and charged for at the established rates of freight.

8. Passengers will only be received on board the ships of the Company on the express condition and agreement on their part that the Company are not liable for detention or delay of passengers arising from accident or from extraordinary or unavoidable circumstances, or from circumstances arising out of or connected with the employment of the Company's ships in the postal service, or from quarantine regulations, or from transshipment, from any cause, nor for any damage, delay, loss, or injury of or to the passengers, or to their baggage or property, from proceeding with or without a pilot, or from deviation, or from the act of God, the Queen's enemies, pirates, restraint of princes, rulers and people, jettison, barratry, collision (however caused), fire or explosions on board, in hulk, or craft, or on shore, or from machinery, whether occasioned by latent defect or otherwise, boilers, heat, steam and steam navigation, or from perils of the seas or otherwise, or from any act, neglect, or default whatsoever of the pilot, master, or mariners; or of any servant, agent, or workmen in the service or employ of the Company or other person; and if required, passengers proceeding to any port beyond Cape Town will be transferred to, and will on the like terms and conditions be conveyed by any coaster or other steamer or steamers, as may from time to time be directed by the captain, or any agent of the Company.

9. A passenger requiring the exclusive occupation of a cabin to pay an additional half fare. Should there be more than two berths in the cabin, one third fare to be charged for each of the other additional berths, besides the additional half fare.

10. Passengers must comply with the regulations established on board the steamer for general comfort and safety.

11. Passengers to Ascension, *viâ* St. Helena, must bear their own expenses at the latter place while waiting for the homeward-bound ship. Passengers waiting at Natal or Delagoa Bay to embark in a corresponding steamer will have to bear their own expenses on shore.

12. Double voyage tickets are issued to first-class private passengers, at a reduction of 10 per cent. off two single fares, available between England and the Cape of Good Hope for four months, Natal five months, from date of embarkation, and between intercolonial ports, three months from the date of embarkation. These periods may be extended by arrangement with the Company's agents. Should the steamer be full when the passenger applies to select a berth, the ticket will be made available for return by the next packet.

PASSENGERS HAVE TO SIGN THE FOLLOWING ACKNOWLEDGMENT BEFORE EMBARKATION.

I hereby acknowledge to have received a ticket for my passage by the or any other vessel which may be substituted by the Company, to and I agree and acknowledge that my contract with the Company as well as respects myself and other the passengers (if any) for whom I engage passage, and my and their luggage and effects, is upon and subject to the terms, conditions, and regulations printed on the back hereof, and also on the back of the ticket which I have received from the Company, and I hereby accept the same accordingly.

Dated this.....188.....

Signed.....

Address.....

Passengers waiting at ports of call to embark in a corresponding steamer will have to bear their own expenses on shore.

Letters and Telegrams for passengers can be addressed to the Head Officer of either Company, or the Company's Agents at Dartmouth and Plymouth.

In all cases of transference, passengers together with their luggage are transferred free, but luggage should be identified by the owners. Passengers who wish to avoid the inconvenience inseparable from transshipment, and possible detention at intermediate ports, should make application of the steam-ship companies' agents as to which steamers proceed straight through to Natal, for some only go as far as the Cape Colony, although connecting with Natal by coasting steamers. Passengers should be on board with their luggage not later than 9 A.M. on the day of sailing. It is hardly necessary to add that freight and charges must be prepaid.

As to household furniture and utensils, although everything of this kind can be had in the colony at reasonable prices, and certainly much better suited to the climate than English-made articles, yet it is not advisable for emigrants to sacrifice their furniture in England, as the rates of freight are not excessively high. Of course, there will be the charges for agency, railway-

carriage, insurance, and storage, to say nothing of the delays incidental to warehousing, but these troubles are preferable to the sacrificing of good seasoned furniture, and it may be household gods. Tools, agricultural implements, and seeds of all sorts are likewise obtainable at moderate prices in the colony. Undesirable as it is, however, to burden ourselves with furniture and goods that can be readily procured in the colony, artisans and mechanics should take their old tools, if good, rather than sacrifice them. Emigrants should not attempt to take out to the colony any description of goods 'on spec,' as the conversion of such goods into hard cash will generally result in loss. They should retain their capital intact until they can see their way to use it advantageously and with certain results.

The following miscellaneous articles will be found serviceable on the voyage:—A light, well-made folding-chair, a small air-cushion, a few yards of indiarubber cloth, railway rug, straps, slippers or goloshes, pencils, pens, ink-bottle, note-paper and envelopes, note and sketching books, some readable literature, light apparel, straw hat, clothes bag, couple of canvas pockets with flaps to button, sponges, rough bathing towel, bathing dress, brushes and combs, pocket-mirror, pocket-flask, insect powder, needles, pins, buttons, tape, thread, twine, tin, copper, and brass tacks, brass hooks, and screws of different sizes. Coin is not really needed on the voyage, although something is required for purchasing articles, gratuities to stewards, &c.: for these purposes silver should be provided. The most secure way of remitting money to Natal is by bankers' draft, which will be cashed on presentation in the colony.¹ Those who intend travelling inland on their arrival at Port Natal will do well to take with them a tent, a portable medicine chest,² a

¹ Bankers' addresses:—The London and Westminster Bank, Lothbury, London, E.C.; The Standard Bank of British South Africa, 10 Clement's Lane, Lombard Street, London, E.C.

² The chest, among other things, should contain:—Carbonate of soda, carbonate of magnesia, seidlitz powders, permanganate of potass (crystals), citric acid (crystals), lime juice, spirit of minderenus, aromatic spirit of ammonia, sweet spirits of nitre, acetate of morphine, creosote, liquor potassæ, paregoric, Epsom salts, senna leaves, compound rhubarb pills, colocynth pills (compound), tartar emetic, ipecacuanha, gentian, ginger, sulphate of zinc, friar's balsam or compound tincture of benziam, spirits of chloroform (chloric ether), laudanum, soap liniment, tincture of arnica, adhesive plaister on unbleached calico in tin case, glycerine, cold-drawn castor-oil, cod-liver oil, chlorodyne, camphor, honey, liquorice (in sticks), apothecaries' scales and weights (in box), graduated glass measures (ounce and minim), a spirit-lamp (ground-stoppered), and spirits. A dozen different sized vials and corks and a lancet; also some

good-sized pocket compass, a powerful binocular field-glass, a pocket filter, a guernsey, leggings, a haversack, a burning-glass, flint, steel, and tinder-box, dark lantern, cork-screw, wheel tape, pedometer, aneroid barometer and thermometer, some balls of twine, a sailmaker's needle, some American oil-cloth, copper wire and copper wire cord, and enamelled ware. These articles can be easily procured either at Durban or Maritzburg.

Sea sickness, or *mal de mer*, which is a better phrase, is of course inseparable from a sea voyage. It is a disagreeable sensation, amounting at times to a serious evil, for which no certain preventive or cure has yet been discovered, and seeing that its primary cause arises from the motion of the vessel itself, a specific is not likely to be introduced. Yet although sea sickness cannot be altogether prevented, it may be mitigated considerably. A few hours before going on board ship a light meal should be taken, and when on the vessel itself, before it is in motion, passengers should lie down on their backs. After the voyage has commenced, passengers had better abstain from partaking of food of any kind for twenty-four hours, and then for a few days partake of farinaceous food only, and that as little as possible. Pastry is most pernicious. They should avoid looking at the sea rushing past, and refrain from smoking and drinking beer, spirits, or liqueurs. Of course, if passengers overload their stomachs with more food and wine than they can digest, they need not wonder if they suffer considerable nausea and severe bilious derangement. Some persons when they feel giddy or queer take a few drops of creosote in a small quantity of water, or place a few drops upon a lump of sugar and suck it, whilst others take iced champagne, or a little French brandy in a glass of water, or soda-water. These may or may not be of service as palliatives; still, if they do little good they can do no harm. They sometimes allay the irritation of the stomach, and thus prevent violent retching; but the writer, who has made the trip three times during the past eighteen years, is inclined to think that, as a stimulant, half a teaspoonful of spirits of chloroform (chloric ether) in half a tumbler of iced water, to which a little sal-volatile may be added, is as good as anything. An effervescing draught of carbonate of soda and lemon juice (or citric acid) may also do some good.

The following mixture, three times a day, after meals, is said to be one of the best antidotes for sea sickness:—Hydro-spongiopiline blistering tissue, lint, muslin, old calico and linen, carded cotton, tow, medicated wool, and surgical bandages, &c.

cyanic acid, 12 drops ; acetate of morphine, 1 grain ; carbonate of soda, 1 drachm ; in water, 6 ounces. Chloral is sometimes used by passengers to induce sleep or to render them unconscious, but although a valuable medicine when taken in small quantities, it is one of those dangerous drugs which people who know nothing of chemistry should never take except under medical advice. Twenty grains in half a tumbler of water three times a day—that is, 60 grains per day—is the regular dose prescribed. When one becomes accustomed to the beating of the powerful engines, the vibration caused by the propeller, and the pitching and rolling of the vessel, the sensation of nausea passes away, and, under ordinary circumstances, the stomach craves for a solid dietary, which may then be taken. Indeed, as a rule, sea-sick voyagers, when they have recovered from their indisposition—and what Mark Twain calls 'The Oh My !' is generally over after the first week or ten days—become as 'hungry as hunters,' and are thus tempted to make up for lost time ; but it is best always to eat and drink moderately. At the same time, plenty of exercise is essential. The probability is that the remainder of the voyage will be made in comparative comfort, for by that time they will have arrived in a region of almost perpetual fine weather. Passengers spend most of their time on deck, enjoying themselves with music, dancing, quoits, chess, draughts, cards, and a variety of other amusements. Of course there are many events which tend to break the monotony of sea life, such as sighting vessels, &c., which may be left to the reader's imagination. Sometimes the sea sickness recommences in rough weather. Under such circumstances the best plan is to follow the advice already given. If the voyager suffers from constipation, which aggravates and intensifies the evil, mild aperients should of course be taken. Another important preventive measure is to get as far as possible into condition before starting. A voyage of this duration is not taken at a moment's notice, and a due course of medicine will beforehand frequently act as that prevention which is far better than cure. If a passenger starts under the influence of a bilious attack he must naturally expect to suffer intolerably. There have been from time to time specifics and infallible remedies for this complaint brought forward, but as a rule they partake of the nature of nostrums. Ice-bags placed vertically along the spine is one, tightening the waist-belt is another. As a rule, however, to a person who is in moderately good health a touch of sea sickness, distressing and humiliating as it may be

for the time being, is not a very serious affair. It helps to acclimatise the passenger for the new life he is about to encounter, and, by getting rid of excess of bile gets the stomach in good condition. With the adoption of the simple suggestions thrown out, the evils of *mal de mer* can be greatly mitigated if not entirely done away with. Of course these remarks do not apply to those invalids and abnormally constituted persons who cannot ride on a penny steamboat or cross the Birkenhead Ferry without an attack of that disease which to England is and has been the best preventive of a French invasion.

As a rule a long ocean voyage is far less trying than crossing in a rough sea to the Channel Islands, the Isle of Man, or Ireland, where the chops of the channels punish the most seasoned travellers far more than the regular pitch of an ocean steamer.

The foregoing advice may by some appear to be trivial and out of place. This is not the case, however. Pin pricks, when continued, amount to a great evil. Similarly the constant succession of the irritation that arises from a series of small inconveniences during a long voyage becomes a grave source of discomfort, if not of positive illness, which is aggravated by the knowledge that it might have been avoided by the exercise of a little forethought. In one case the emigrant will land in good health and spirits, and look back upon a pleasant voyage. In the other he will find himself on arrival shattered, somewhat irritated from a constant succession of petty annoyances, and he will look back upon the voyage with feelings of disgust. This chapter has *primâ facie* not much to do with emigration in its broader aspects, but it is by no means uncalled for. In conclusion, ship's passengers and crew are for the time being a family party. It is doubly incumbent upon each member of the family to make him or herself agreeable, and study the comfort and feelings of others, in order to insure a pleasant and a prosperous journey. On arrival, when the party breaks up, the traveller or settler will be none the worse for the hearty good wishes and 'God speed' of his fellow voyagers.

CHAPTER II.

DISCOVERY AND EARLY HISTORY.

Natal known to the Phœnicians—Rediscovery of by Vasco de Gama—Early Settlement of the Dutch—Hospitality of the Natives—Account of the Aborigines—Holden's History—Lieutenant Farewell's Settlement—King Charka—Boer Settlement at Natal—Rupture with King Dingaan—Massacre of Boers—Their Revenge on the Natives—Fighting between the Boers and English—Settlement of the Dispute—Dr. Livingstone's Account of the Boers and their treatment of the Natives—Natal made a distinct Colony—Public Works—Langalibalele—Panda and Cetewayo—Action of Sir Bartle Frere—Cost of Zulu War—Future Prospects.

THE rediscovery of Natal, and the fact that Africa was a gigantic peninsula, took place within a few years of the rediscovery of America by Columbus in 1493, though the existence of the last-named continent was known to the Scandinavians as early as the year 986 A.D. Similarly the ancient Phœnicians have left it on record that they had sailed round the continent from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean in the year B.C. 604, by command of Necho, King of Egypt, who fitted out the expedition, which occupied three years on its voyage of discovery. The Greek and Roman writers of the period ridiculed the account of the voyagers, much as in later times the travels of Bruce were ridiculed with the travels of Baron Munchausen. Bruce broke his heart, and after his death it was discovered that his accounts of the South Africans was strictly correct, as we find also are the accounts of the Phœnician voyagers, though most of their knowledge of navigation died with them. Several authorities, however, have agreed, with great show of reason, that South Africa was the source from which the Queen of Sheba derived her gold, and the riches she displayed to King Solomon.¹ Be that as it may, however, all knowledge of Africa, except those parts adjacent to Europe, gradually died out during the dark ages, as did the knowledge of many arts and sciences which have only been rediscovered comparatively within our own times. From the time of the Phœnicians until 1497, South Africa was literally a *terra incognita*. Though in 1412 King John the Great of Portugal com-

¹ Mozambique is supposed to have been the Ophir or Tarshish of the Jews—whither Solomon sent his ships out of the Red Sea.

menced sending out exploring expeditions, which discovered in successive voyages Capes Tor and Bodagor, the Madeiras, Azores, and finally the Cape itself, which they christened the Cape of Storms (Cabo Tormentoso), believing that point to be the real Ultima Thule or end of the world. King Emanuel, who succeeded to the kingdom of Portugal in 1495, inherited his predecessors' energy and desire to extend his maritime possessions, and notwithstanding many oppositions determined to overcome all obstacles by the employment of persons of resolution and judgment. Vasco de Gama was selected for his ability, and on account of his previous services, to conduct an expedition consisting of 160 men and three small ships. He carried credentials to all the eastern potentates, including Prester John himself. In due course he succeeded in doubling the Cape of Storms, which was eventually rechristened, and the ill-omened name replaced by the hopeful one which it now bears. In due time, after passing the Cape and meeting with vicissitudes, they sighted land on Christmas Day 1497, and hence gave the name of Natal to the district. This was by no means an uncommon designation among the early discoverers. There is a Nata city in Panama, a Nativity in St. Domingo, the Nativity Colony founded by Admiral Colon on behalf of the King of Spain, and doubtless several others. A few days after sighting Natal, the voyagers came to a river which they named *De los Reyes*, of the kings, from having discovered it on the first day of Epiphany, where they landed one or two of their pioneers (malefactors who had been pardoned on account of their willingness to incur extra danger). The negotiations for trade were carried on successfully with the natives with mutual satisfaction. The inhabitants were described as being superior to the Hottentots; their weapons were long bows with arrows and darts of iron. They carried on traffic with the 'rovers of the sea,' and then again with trading ships for tar, anchors, and cordage. They gave the natives the general name of Kafir, however, which signifies heathen. Marco Polo in his description assigns this country as the native place of the roc and gryphon. A picture of the former bird represents him, something like a large rooster, flying off with three native jumbos, one in his beak and one in each claw.

When Vasco succeeded in doubling the Cape he was in search of a route to India. The monopoly of the eastern trade had hitherto been in the hands of the Italians and the rich merchants of Venice, whose argosies sailed on every known sea, and whose

Doges yearly wedded the ocean by the ceremony of casting a rich ring into the sea, and christened their city 'The Bride of the Adriatic,' whilst the command which the Italian Republics had over the Black and Caspian seas, and the facilities through Egypt and the Red Sea, gave them exclusive privileges. Gradually the Venetians lost their maritime supremacy and were superseded by the Portuguese, and the latter, in turn, by the Dutch, who maintained it until their flag had to go down before the British.

The discovery of Natal, therefore, by De Gama, whilst cruising in search of an Indian route, was more a piece of luck than the result of judgment, though the effect was to bring an enormous accession of Indian wealth and territory to King Emanuel, who a few years later founded a Portuguese colony in India, and later on at Japan.

The Dutch were keenly alive to the importance of the Cape and Natal as trading stations, and as a means of developing their possessions in the east, and of giving support to the Dutch East India Company, and facilitating their trade with the Chinese, with whom they bartered sage in exchange for tea, and for a time made a good thing out of the celestials. It was the Dutch that first imported the latter herb into Europe. They purchased large tracts of land from the Portuguese on that part known as *Tierra de Natal*, for the double purposes of establishing trading stations and for colonisation purposes, though it was long before the object was accomplished to any extent. A Captain Gerbrantz Vander Schelling, in his visit to Natal, discovered a sailor who had deserted and settled down to the life of a native, the happy owner of two wives. Similar instances are continually occurring in all new settlements, notably in Fiji. The first commerce either to Natal or Delagoa with the English came about by accident, owing to the *Johanna* being wrecked on the coast in 1683, when the natives, who were reported to be great barbarians, showed, says Pinkerton, 'much more civility and kindness than some nations I know who pretend much more religion and politeness.' They accommodated their guests with whatever they wanted of the produce of their country at very easy rates, and assisted to save part of the damaged cargo, receiving very moderate rewards for their labour. Their language was by signs, and for a few glass beads, knives, scissors, needles and thread, and small looking-glasses, which they are fond of, they hired themselves to carry many portable things to a neighbouring country, and procured others who served as guides to the Cape of Good Hope,

and having carried them about 200 miles on their way, procured new guides and porters for them, who conducted and provided for them as the others had done for 800 miles further. This account was from one of the travellers, who mentioned also that the natural fertility of the countries made the inhabitants lazy, indolent, indocile, and simple. The rivers are abundantly stored with good fish and water fowl, besides monatees or sea-cows, and crocodiles. Their woods with large trees, cattle and deer, elephants, rhinoceroses, lions, tigers, wolves, and foxes for game; also many sorts of winged fowl and birds, besides ostriches.

According to Holden's interesting account:—

In the year 1686, a Dutch ship, the *Stavenisse*, was wrecked at the entrance of the Bay of Natal. After one or two ineffectual attempts to escape in the boats and by land, they set to work to build a small craft out of the timber of the wreck. In twelvemonths the vessel was completed and sailed for the Cape, without compass or chart, leaving four Englishmen and a Frenchman, who did not care to incur the dangers of such a voyage. The little vessel, however, arrived in safety at Table Bay.

In the course of the next year, the Dutch Company at the Cape, excited by the accounts of the amazing fertility and strange productions of the colony, despatched another vessel to make further discoveries at Natal, and along the coast as far as Delagoa Bay. After completing the survey of that place, they sailed for Natal Bay, and then rescued two of the seamen left behind by the *Stavenisse*; and, when coasting along in latitude 33°, and off the territory of the Magoses (now called the Amakosas), another seaman of the *Stavenisse* swam off to them. These persons gave much information respecting Natal and the inhabitants, which, at this time of day, it is not a little amusing to peruse. They state among other marvels, 'One may travel two or three hundred *mylen* through the country, and without any cause of fear from men, provided you go naked, and without any iron or copper; for these things give inducement to the murder of those who have them. Neither need one be in any apprehension about meat and drink, as they have in every village, or *kraal*, a house of entertainment for travellers, where these are not only lodged, but fed also. Care must only be taken, towards nightfall, when one cannot get any further, to put up then and not go on before morning. In an extent of one hundred and fifty *mylen*, travelled by your servants along the coast, to the depth of about thirty *mylen* inward, and through five kingdoms—namely, the Magoses, Makriggas, the Matimbas, Mapontes, and Emboas—they found no standing waters, but many rivers with plenty of fish and full of sea-cows. There are many dense forests, with short-stemmed trees: but at the Bay of Natal are two forests, each fully a *myl* square, with tall, straight, and thick trees, fit for house or ship timber, in which is abundance of honey and wax; but no wax is to be had from the natives, as they eat the wax as well as the honey.

'In all the time of their stay in that country, or of travelling through it, they found but one European—an old Portuguese, in the country of the Mapontes. He had been shipwrecked there about forty years before, while returning from India. The wreck, built of teak, is still to be seen on shore;

and, as the Africans state, several brass and iron cannon are still to be found there. The Portuguese had been circumcised, and had a wife, children, cattle, and land. He spoke only the African language, having forgotten everything—his God included. They cultivated three sorts of corn, as also calabashes, pumpkins, water-melons, and beans. They sow annually a sort of earth-nut and a kind of underground bean, both very nourishing, and bearing a small leaf. Tobacco grows there wild, and if they knew how to manage it, would, in all probability, be equal to the Virginian.

The true European fig grows wild; also a kind of grapes, which are a little sour, though well-tasted; they are best boiled. They have also a kind of tree-fruit, not unlike the fatherland medlar, and not unpleasant to eat. Wild prunes grow abundantly on the shore, and are well-tasted. There are also wild cherries, with long stalks, and very sour. Finally, they have a kind of apple, not unpleasant eating, but which are not ripe till they fall from the tree; before they fall, they are nauseous, and cause flatulency. The country swarms with cows, calves, oxen, steers, and goats. There are few sheep, but no want of elephants, rhinoceroses, lions, tigers, leopards, elands, and harts, as well of the Cape kind as the fatherland, with branched horns; rheboks of various kinds, wild hogs, dogs, buffaloes, sea-cows, crocodiles, and horses. The latter they do not catch or tame, although they approach within ten or twelve paces; they are finely formed and quite black, with long manes and tails, incredibly swift, and of great strength. Some have the tail black and others white. They also say that they 'saw two animals feeding together in the wilderness, in size and colour like the elephant, having a head like the horse, a short tail, but long neck, very tame, and totally unknown in Europe (Giraffe?).

There are many kinds of snakes, scorpions, large and small, also centipedes, toads and frogs, ostriches, geese, ducks, pigeons, red and brown partridges, abundance of pheasants and *pauus*, with a shining top-knot and tail (Balearic crane?). In the rivers are eels and congers; and in the Bay of Natal, king's-fish and sun-fish, known in India and here, as may be further seen from the annexed account taken down from the mouths of our men.

The officers in command of the expedition, also, while at Port Natal, entered into a treaty with the chief of the district for the purchase of the bay and some surrounding land, the medium of exchange being beads, copper, ironwork, &c., and they were specially directed to affirm, in the purchase-deed, that the goods so given were of the value stated in their instructions. The land was bought and assigned accordingly. But the purchase did not secure to the Dutch any benefit equivalent to the value of the goods given, trifling as that was; for on visiting the place a few years after to take possession, they found that the chief with whom the contract was made was dead, and his son, on being reminded of the treaty, replied, 'My father is dead; his "skins" (that is, clothes) are buried with him in his house, which has been burnt over him; and the place is fenced in, over which none now must pass; and as to what he agreed to, it was for himself. I have nothing to say to it.'

About the commencement of the eighteenth century, Port Natal was visited by the English for the purpose of securing victims for the nefarious slave-trade, in which they appear to have been successful.

In 1721, the Dutch established a factory at Port Natal, but soon abandoned it; and till the arrival of Farewell and his party, in 1822, the intercourse of the white man with the inhabitants of Natal was principally the result of shipwrecks along the rock-bound coasts.

I have quoted the foregoing fully from the Rev. Mr. Holden's 'History of Natal,' as it gives a vivid picture of the natives, and their manners and customs at the time of the early discovery of the Colony. Viewed by the light of subsequent events we can better understand the conduct of the natives of the present day. The elements of civilisation have been in too many instances, especially in Africa, kidnapping, slavery, the pistol, vile brandy, small-pox, and other diseases of civilised life which need not be further specified.

In 1823 Lieutenant Farewell, R.N., while engaged on a surveying expedition along the south-east coast of Africa, visited Natal in two small vessels, named respectively the *Julia* and the *Salisbury*. This officer was very favourably impressed with the general appearance of the country, and on returning to the Cape Colony he gave such a report of its extent and capabilities as to leave no doubt of its suitability for settlement. Subsequently, 'he induced about seventy persons to join him in his favourite scheme of forming a new colony.' In 1824, Mr. Henry F. Fynn, having in the meantime obtained Tyaka's permission to form a white-settlement, Lieutenant Farewell landed his party at Port Natal.¹ They located themselves upon the exact site of the present town gardens, Durban, then quite a rural spot, where tenements had, by Mr. Fynn's orders, been built expressly for their use, and where, on August 27, 1824, the British flag was hoisted by the founders of the new settlement; not, however, with the sanction of the British Government. The Governor of Cape Colony, Lord Charles Somerset, had been asked to annex the territory, but refused to interfere in any way. At this early period the whole of the district was estimated to contain about three or four hundred natives, most of whom gladly attached themselves to the British pioneers. Forty years before the district had been densely populated by numerous aboriginal tribes, who lived peaceably enough together under their independent chiefs, and cultivated the soil; but, by his superior powers and the better organisation of his army, Chaka had, during his chieftainship, gradually decimated the aboriginal inhabitants, and turned their country into a wilderness.² He plundered and

¹ Subsequently, Lieutenant King and Mr. Isaacs, who had visited England for the purpose of obtaining the assistance of the Admiralty, arrived in the *Mary*, which was wrecked on entering the bay.

² The inhabitants were said to be 'numerous as the blades of grass, spreading over the hills, and filling the valleys.' Sir Theophilus Shepstone, a great authority in such matters, sets down the population of Natal previous to Chaka's chieftainship at 1,000,000, or thereabouts, and this is probably the

destroyed from one end of the district to the other, and only those who attached themselves to his own following, or who escaped from the hands of his ferocious warriors and lived in concealment, saved their lives. As the incidents connected with that period would in themselves supply material for a chapter, the writer will only here remark that Chaka's chief motive appears to have been the consolidation of his own power. On the arrival of the English settlers, Chaka, who had signalised his accession to the kingship of the Zulus¹ by revolting cruelties, reigned superior over all the territory from Delagoa Bay to the Umzimoubu. In 1828, Chaka, recently designated 'the Attila of South Africa,' was assassinated at his royal residence, which he had fixed at New Guelderland, by or at the instigation of his brothers Dingaan and Umhlangana—Dingaan subsequently murdering Umhlangana, who contested with him the vacant throne.

About this time a party of Boers,² feeling the yoke of British Government in the Cape Colony to be irksome, joined the small band of Englishmen in Natal, from whom they received a cordial welcome. In 1833, there was, unhappily, a rupture of the amicable arrangements existing between Chaka's successor, Dingaan, and the English, which led to the quick retirement of the latter into 'No Man's Land,' the territory of Faku, a friendly native chief, located south of the river Umzimkulu. This precipitate movement was made under the advice of Mr. Fynn, and there is no reason to doubt but that a meditated butchery on the part of Dingaan—who was wrathful because the English settlers received refugees from Zululand, and who was disposed to emulate the career of his deceased brother—was by this means averted. As it was, 'Dingaan's army overtook him (Mr. Fynn), killed thirteen or fourteen Natal Kafirs, and captured his cattle.' Meantime, Lieutenant Farewell had been murdered by some natives in Amapondaland, and was succeeded as English chief by his faithful friend Mr. Fynn. In 1834, the Imperial Government was urged to take possession of the settlement, this time by a petition from 192 Cape merchants and others, but the prayer of their petition was not granted. In the same year Mr. Fynn

nearest possible approach to accuracy. 'Chaka is supposed to have destroyed a million of human beings before he was killed by Dingaan.'—Letter in *Standard*, September 28, 1842.

¹ Correctly speaking, Amazulus.

² Equivalent to the German word *bauer*, which means peasant, and is the Dutch equivalent for farmer.

accepted an official position in the Cape Colony, his duties as English chief devolving upon John Cane and Henry Ogle. In 1835, the request to annex the district was again respectfully made, and with a like result. In that year, Captain Gardiner, R.N., a missionary, persuaded Dingaan to become more conciliatory than heretofore, and he finally agreed, on certain terms, to an amnesty in favour of the Zulu refugees (about 1,000) who had associated themselves with, or sought protection from the English. It has also been alleged, with what degree of truth it is not necessary to inquire, that he (Dingaan) promised at about the same time to make a cession of some 15,000 square miles of Natal soil to the English settlers; that is, the territory between the Tugela and Umzimkulu rivers, and from the sea-coast to the Quathlamba mountains. Captain Gardiner then visited England, and was appointed magistrate of the infant settlement. Soon after receiving his appointment from the Imperial Government he returned to Natal, and the English settlers returned from No Man's Land to their original location, which was named Durban, in honour of Sir Benjamin Durban, who at that time was Governor of the Cape Colony. The settlers and natives, however, it must be noted, openly repudiated any claim to authority on the part of Captain Gardiner, and, considering the attitude of neutrality previously maintained by the Government, this was not to be wondered at.¹ About this time Captain Gardiner, in accordance with the terms of a treaty already alluded to, took a number of refugees back to Dingaan, whereupon they were put to death in his presence. In the following year, a party of unoffending and unsuspecting Boers (about 100), under the leadership of Pieter Relief, fell victims to the treachery of the Zulus. They were inveigled into entering a royal kraal unarmed, and while sitting on the ground drinking Kafir beer, at a prearranged signal an attack was made upon them by Dingaan's warriors, and, after a short contest, the whole party was destroyed to a man. The Zulus, immediately afterwards, overran the entire district of Natal. A number of peaceable Boers (in all about 600, it is said), were butchered by the Zulus (hence the name of Wernen, i.e. 'Werping' county, in memory of the mourning that followed their work of carnage). But most of the Boers having retired into their *laagers*, or extemporised defences, within Natal territory, were able to repel the repeated attacks of Dingaan's men. A small party of English soldiers (with about

¹ It must be remembered that, so far as the Government was concerned, the settlers had been abandoned to their fate.

700 protected natives), who, with a view to making a diversion in favour of their Boer allies, had moved over the Great Tugela river, were driven back by Dingaan's men with great slaughter: most of them were, in fact, destroyed, whilst those who had escaped, or who had remained at the Port, sought refuge either on one of the islands or on board a small vessel in the bay. The Zulus then destroyed the settlers' houses, and seized their cattle. In 1837, another batch of Boer emigrants, who had left Cape Colony in the previous year, arrived. They resolved that such a deliberate act of treachery as that of Dingaan's to their kindred should not go unavenged, and, uniting with the earlier Boer settlers, they advanced upon the Zulus; but being heavily overmatched by the latter, they were, after a vigorous resistance, worsted, and compelled to retreat to their laagers, the Zulus ruthlessly destroying everything that they could lay their hands upon belonging to their white-skinned enemies.

In 1838 a much larger migration of Boers took place from the Cape Colony. Some of these emigrants joined the Natal settlers, and the native population of the district occupied by the latter having by this time increased in numbers to about 11,000, the Boers secured a native following of over 2,000. Strengthened by this large accession to their numbers, and nothing daunted by the former defeat they had suffered, the Boers again attacked the Zulus. A desperate battle ensued, the result being a victory for the Boers. About 3,000 of Dingaan's brave but merciless warriors were, it is said, slain in this fierce conflict, whilst the Boers only lost four of their number. The following account of this encounter taken from the *Times* of that year, March 16, 1838, shows that the Boers exacted a terrible vengeance upon the natives:—

The despatches just received from the Cape of Good Hope contain an incident of a nature so striking in itself, so terrible in its details, and so instructive in the lesson it conveys, that we bring it prominently into notice for the consideration of the public.

We are not the only Europeans settled in South Africa. The Dutch were there before us; and there, in no inconsiderable numbers, they remain still. Not being very well satisfied with our Government—though discontented probably rather with the policy of our proceedings than with our supremacy itself—some of the representatives of these older colonists have penetrated more and more deeply into the interior of the country, and have acquired a species of independence, by escaping from the immediate vicinity of the British provinces. One of their settlements is 'The Trans-Vaal Republic,' a title which will explain both the political and geographical position of the community. Here, like ourselves, they border upon the Kafirs, and are exposed accordingly to the self-same liabilities in the shape of frontier alarms,

attacks, and depredations. That they do not, however, content themselves with our mild system of reprisals, or deal in our fashion with their savage enemies, will be only too evident from the story which we are about to relate.

The Kafirs had given the Trans-Vaal Boers most dreadful offence. They had murdered seven or eight men of the settlement, including a field-cornet, or officer of colonial levies, and had put to death several women, with circumstances, as we are told, of the most frightful barbarity. In the month of October last, therefore (for so long are accounts in reaching us from these remote regions), General Pretorius, accompanied by Commandant-General Potgieter, a relative apparently of the murdered officer, proceeded on an expedition to avenge the blood which had been shed by the Kafirs. The force altogether was about 500 strong, the greater part being mounted; and they had 116 wagons, and two field pieces. Towards the end of the month they reached certain subterraneous caverns of vast extent, in which the offending Kafirs, under their chief, Makapan, were known to have entrenched themselves. These extraordinary caves are described as being upwards of 2,000 feet in length, and from 300 feet to 500 feet in breadth, intersected by 'walls'—we presume, of natural construction—and so dark that no eye could penetrate the gloom. Arrived at this retreat, General Pretorius appears to have debated, without scruple or hesitation, how he could exterminate his enemies with the greatest facility; and at 'a council of war' it was resolved, we are told, to blast the rocks above the caverns, and thus crush and bury the savages alive under the ruins. This scheme was attempted forthwith, but failed, in consequence of the stone proving unfavourable to the operation. The caves were then surrounded and rigorously watched day and night, to prevent the entrance of any supplies, so that the wretches within, who seem, by the accounts, to have represented the whole population of a Kafir village, wives and children included, might be reduced to the extremities of famine. At first fences or barriers were constructed round the rocks, behind which the Boers maintained incessant watch; but as the work proceeded, enormous loads of timber and stone were brought up and thrown into the opening of the caverns. The pangs of thirst, however, soon forced through these obstacles some of the miserable creatures within, and a 'large number of women and children,' we are told, 'suffering from want of water, sallied forth, but died after they had drunk a little.' Meantime the patrols kept ward night and day, and with their rifles laid every Kafir dead who showed himself, in his exhaustion or misery, at the cavern's mouth. As this barbarous siege was actually protracted through the greater part of three weeks, it is plain that the savages must have had some small amount of provisions with them; but the work at last came to an end. On the 17th of November the besiegers, as they advanced towards the rocks, encountered little opposition; and the silence of the caves, together with the horrible smell of the dead, told them how effectually their object had been accomplished. The miserable savages had perished in their holes, and the estimate of their losses gives a frightful idea of the tragedy. Women and children in considerable numbers appear to have escaped; but upwards of 900 Kafirs had been shot down at the openings of the caverns; and the number of those who had died by inches within was, we are assured, 'much greater.' Such is an incident of Kafir warfare, as conducted by colonists!

Every one will rejoice that so horrible a massacre was not perpetrated by British soldiers, or under cover of the British flag; and the example may, perhaps, be reasonably appealed to by those who protest against committing the conduct of such wars to any but regular troops. It is impossible, however,

to overlook the disadvantages in which such a policy places us. Judging from experience we could not have done so much towards curbing the Kafirs in a long campaign, or after an expenditure of millions, as General Pretorius did in two short months with a handful of volunteers, at probably little or no cost to his countrymen, and with a loss of only two killed and five wounded. The whole expedition was contrived with a rude simplicity, which, though barbarous enough in its results, was successfully adapted to the purpose in view. The settlers of the Trans-Vaal Republic turned out to hunt savages after a savage fashion. The Kafirs had not only butchered their countrymen, but had added cannibalism to murder; for pots were found containing the roasted limbs of the victims. To such offenders no more mercy was shown than to so many wolves; and when they had been tracked to their dens, they were starved and shot without respect to the usages of more civilised war. After the expedition was over, the booty collected was sold for the public good; a portion of the proceeds was assigned to the widows and families of the murdered men; the rest was reserved to pay for the ammunition, &c. expended; and with this primitive settlement the Kafir war of the Boers was closed.

We, it is plain, do not fight with such enemies on fair terms. The Kafirs, in passing from peace to war with us, forego little, sacrifice little, and hazard to a very small extent even their own savage lives. We export soldiers thousands of miles, every man of whom has cost us the worth of a Kafir province in training, and who are expected to encounter treacherous and sanguinary barbarians in their own deserts, according to the punctilios of regular war. The result is, that the losses are almost exclusively our own. The Treasury is drained of million after million, our best officers and men perish in the thicket, and after a lapse of a year or two, the 'Kafir war' is concluded, to be followed in a few months by another. We doubt very much if as many Kafirs have fallen by the bullets and bayonets of our troops in the last three wars as were destroyed in this single expedition of Pretorius. It would be hard, indeed, to argue that such an example should be followed; but of this we are convinced, that if the colonisation of South Africa is to be continued, the savage tribes of our frontier can only be successfully encountered, like the savages of all other regions, by acts resembling their own. The backwoodsmen of Kentucky pursued the Red Indians as the Red Indians pursued them, and victory in the end fell to the superior race. It would probably be the same at the Cape; but to expect that the contest could be conducted without offence to civilised feelings, is altogether vain. We simply put the case, by aid of this illustration, before the eyes of the reader. Handled as those on the spot could handle them, the Kafirs—those bugbears of our statesmen and economists—could be kept down with little outlay or trouble; but the system would be only too sure to involve shocks and scandals to the humanity of the nation. This, however, we must needs add, that if such an alternative be rejected, the border provinces ought to be relinquished altogether; for the country can no longer afford to tolerate those periodical wars of which the cost is found so great and the fruit so little.

It seems strange to read the foregoing after the light of over forty years and in view of our more recent experience in the battlefields of the Cape. One thing is very certain, that the English would never have exacted such a terrible vengeance upon the natives as did the Boers, and in which the *Times* of that day

seemed to lend them a certain amount of moral support. Commenting on the foregoing at the time, the Rev. Mr. Holden remarks :—

It is the fate which awaits the Transvaal Boers, if they restlessly persist in the perpetration of such dastardly crimes as that which Commandant Pretorius has proclaimed to the world with vast satisfaction. It is a rapid descent towards barbarism, which cannot be checked except by a complete abstinence from the unmanly practices which I have deemed it a duty here to expose and condemn. Those respectable Boers who constituted a portion of the grand emigration from the Cape Colony in 1836-1843, but who many years ago chose to locate themselves in Natal, have recently shown their Transvaal friends 'a more excellent way' of suppressing incipient Kafir outbreaks, and preventing a repetition of their marauding and cattle-stealing habits.

Subsequently the Boers—though not possessing much confidence in the friendliness, and distrusting the ulterior motives of Panda, Dingaan's brother, allied themselves with him. Panda was then living in Natal, and, having regarded Dingaan's power with some jealousy and apprehension, had made overtures to the Dutch. There can be no doubt but that the weakening of Dingaan's power was a paramount necessity for 'M.' Panda's own safety, while the Boers were glad of this opportunity to strengthen their own position. In 1840 the combined forces (numbering in all 4,400) crossed the great Tugela river, and gave battle to Dingaan on his own territory, when his regiments, said to be 12,000 strong, were again disastrously routed, Dingaan himself, after a brief reign, fleeing for his life. It has been asserted with a high degree of probability that he afterwards fell beneath the assegais or lances of the Amaswazis, to whom he had fled when driven from his kingdom; but really it seems impossible to determine how his death was compassed.

Upon the death of his brother Dingaan, Panda was proclaimed King of the Zulus by the Dutch, and themselves masters of the country from St. Lucia Bay to St. John's river, and Panda gave also 36,000 head of cattle in consideration of the help which the Boers had afforded him.

Looking at the equivalent which they received, the assistance they rendered was amply paid for; in war as in trade the Boers were true to their national character—

In matters of commerce the fault of the Dutch
Is asking too little and taking too much.

It was about this time that the Boers, who were flushed with victory, founded the towns of Durban and Maritzburg—properly speaking Pieter-Maritzburg—but the combined names, though they honoured Peter, one man, and Maritz, another, were found

in practice to be inconvenient, and the Christian name of one hero dropped out.

Meantime the policy of the British Government had been very undecided, but on receiving intimation that the Dutch intended to create a new Republic, a small force in thirty-eight detachments was despatched by Sir George Napier, under the command of Major Charteris, to prevent the Dutch settlers from acquiring independent territory from the natives. The command of these troops afterwards devolved upon Captain Jervis, who managed by dint of tact and courtesy to establish cordial relations between the soldiers and the Dutch settlers, who looked upon the latter as their friends and supporters, and worked in harmony with them. In the following year, however, the British troops were withdrawn from Durban in consequence of the disinclination of the British Government to take any decided steps for the retention of the territory under its own rule. In consequence, the Dutch settlers considered the withdrawal of Captain Jervis in the light of an abandonment on the part of the Government, and immediately hoisted the colours of what they thenceforth named the 'Republic of Natalia.' The British Government then informed the colonists that it still continued to claim their obedience and fealty though they had withdrawn the military force and the British ensign. The Boers, however, declined to accede to this proposition or to listen to the remonstrances of Sir George Napier, who pointed out that the settlement had not attained to the dignity of a colony, but to no purpose. The Dutch displayed their usual stubbornness and refused to acknowledge the supremacy of the British Government. Accordingly in 1842 a small detachment of 200 men of the 27th, under Captain Smith, were marched from the frontier of the Cape Colony into Durban, to reassert, and, if necessary, to regain at the bayonet's point the authority so hastily assumed by the Boers. Captain Smith took up an entrenched position on the northern side of the Bay, at the site of the 'camp,' or military cantonment, quite close to Durban. The Boers, however much surprised, determined to offer resistance, and to face the possible consequences of their bold conduct. They therefore bivouacked behind entrenchments on the Congella flat, at the head of the Bay, and refused to disperse at Captain Smith's behest. Having been strengthened by reinforcements from the upper districts of the colony, the Boers, on May 23, 1842, assumed the offensive by capturing sixty oxen belonging to the British forces. Captain Smith, with half his

force and two field-pieces, attempted a night surprise, but the Boers, apprehensive of some move, had posted their videttes, and were not to be taken unawares. After a sharp action, in which thirty men were killed, sixteen wounded, and two guns lost,¹ Captain Smith was repulsed. Elated and emboldened by their successful night-engagement, the Boers, who were now possessed of five pieces of ordnance, subsequently took possession of the low tongue of land commanding the harbour-entrance from the north side, and, hoping to starve the besieged into submission, seized the military stores deposited in the 'Block House.' They also opened fire into the British camp from three sides, but finally retired. It may here be noted parenthetically that, on the commencement of hostilities, the Boers had of their own accord placed the English settlers' wives and children on board the *Mazeppa*, one of the two vessels anchored in the Bay at the time. Captain Smith finding himself only too effectually beleaguered, now set about making such hasty preparations as he could to sustain a regular siege. On making application to Mr. George C. Cabo, the present American Consul, and one of the oldest colonists in Natal, for special native couriers to carry despatches to the Cape Colony, that gentleman, with superb courage, volunteered himself to be the bearer of them. Captain Smith, however, considered Mr. Cabo's presence essential to his interests, and it was then arranged that the late Mr. Richard King should undertake the perilous journey alone. For that purpose two horses were swum across the harbour by himself and Mr. Cabo in the darkness and stillness of the night, but their stealthy movements were detected by the vigilant Boers, who at once fired upon them, and hotly pursued Mr. King. Mr. Cabo remained on the Bluff, and for his intrepidity was placed by the Boers 'in durance vile,' but he does not appear to have felt much trepidation, for he persisted, with his feet fast in the stocks, in tantalising his gaolers by sketching British men-of-war on the prison walls. Mr. King, cleverly eluding his pursuers, accomplished the extraordinary ride of over 600 miles to the Cape frontier in ten days²—a wonderfully short space of time, considering that it was through a rough tract of country infested with wild animals, and traversed by several large rivers swarming with alligators. This is not the place to eulogise the

¹ 'In all,' according to Holden's history, '34 killed, 63 wounded, and 6 missing.'

² 'Two of which were spent in sickness, and consequent detention, thereby leaving only eight days' actual travelling.'

name of Richard King—a name gratefully remembered by colonists, and one which will ever shine with brightening lustre on the page of Natalian history, as that of a colonial hero who deserved well of the Government, but whose services were ill requited.

Sixteen days after Mr. King's departure, the *Mazeppa*, under command of Mr. Joseph Cabo (a brother of Mr. G. C. Cabo), slipped her cable and put out to sea under fire from the Boers.

Up to this time Captain Smith and his men managed to hold out bravely, but the siege lingered on, and to what extremities the garrison had been reduced may be inferred from the fact that, by June 18, they had to eat a scanty supply of *bilbong* (horseflesh dried by exposure to the air), with 'biscuit dust, alternating with biscuit and rice, at half allowance,' and forage corn.¹ On the nights of the 24th and 25th of the same month, however, the beleaguered troops had the satisfaction of seeing signal-rockets fired at sea. Reinforcements and supplies were close at hand, and the spirits of the men revived accordingly. The *Couch*, a small transport schooner from Algoa Bay, under the command of Captain Durnford, had on board 100 men of the 27th, some artillery-men, and two guns. The admiral's flag-ship *Southampton*, a fifty-gun frigate from Capetown, also had reinforcements on board.² On June 25, under Lieutenant-Colonel Clark's directions, the relieving forces were safely landed, although the Boers opened fire on the *Couch*, which was piloted by Mr., afterwards Captain, Bell, and on the boats that landed the troops. Thus, after a month's siege, the garrison was relieved.³ Thereupon the Boers discreetly retired, but at first exhibited a slight disposition to resist the British forces at Pinetown, a village fourteen miles west of Durban. Recognising, however, the futility of further resistance by force, they prudently fell back on Maritzburg, and finally acknowledged British supremacy by unconditionally capitulating on July 5.

¹ On the night of the 18th July, 1842, a party of the English troops surprised the Boers in their trenches, and many were bayoneted after a stout resistance, while on the part of the English two privates of the 27th were killed, and four others severely wounded. Daily attacks on the British were made by the Boers.

² Thanks to the promptitude of the Capetown officials the *Southampton* arrived at the roadstead within twenty-four hours of the *Couch's* arrival. The *Mazeppa* subsequently returned from an unsuccessful search for British cruisers.

³ The loss 'during this period was but one sergeant and two privates of the 27th, and three wounded; one Cape rifleman, and one civilian killed, and one wounded, exclusive of the loss [previously] noted as occurring during the sortie.'

They sought to make a last appeal to the Governor of the Cape Colony, through their representative, Mr. A. W. J. Pretorius, for the restitution of their independence, but it was of no avail. Sir George Napier remained firm. Eventually, after a great deal of threatening and discussion, the Dutch made submission and acknowledged Natal to be virtually a portion of the British colony, and they agreed to the conditions that there should be no distinction of colour, origin, language, or creed recognised in the eye of the law.

Dr. Livingstone, in his popular account of travels and researches in South Africa, speaks very bitterly of the way in which the Boers treated the natives. They gave them a nominal form of liberty, but really imposed slavery upon them. 'We make the people work for us,' said the Boers, 'in consideration of allowing them to live in our country.' 'This new and mean species of slavery,' continues Livingstone, 'which they have adopted serves to supply the lack of field labour only; the demand for domestic servants must be met by forays on tribes who have good supplies of cattle. It was long before I could give credit to the tales of bloodshed told by native witnesses; but when I heard the Boers either bewailing or boasting of the bloody scenes in which they had themselves been actors, I was compelled to admit the validity of the testimony. They are all traditionally religious, and trace their descent from some of the best men (Huguenots or Dutch) the world ever saw. In their own estimation they are the chosen people of God, and all coloured races are "black property," or creatures—heathen given them for an inheritance. Living in the midst of a much more numerous native population and many miles from each other, the Boers feel themselves insecure, and when they receive reports against any tribes, the direst vengeance appears to the most mildly disposed among them a simple measure of defence. However bloody the massacre, no qualms of conscience ensue. There is not a single instance of the Bechuans attacking either the Boers or the English. They have defended themselves when assailed, but have never engaged in offensive war with Europeans. We have a different tale to tell of the Kafirs, and the result has been that from the hour they obtained firearms not one Boer has attempted to settle in Kafirland or even to face the enemy in the field. These magnanimous colonists have manifested a marked antipathy to any but long-shot warfare, and, sidling away on their emigrations towards the more effeminate Bechuans, have left their quarrels with the Kafirs

to be fought out by the English and the wars to be paid for by English gold.'

Judged by the light of subsequent experience, the foregoing remarks by the late Dr. Livingstone are singularly appropriate and prophetic, as we show by the following extract from the *Colonies*, a paper that can speak with authority:—

The debt of the Transvaal Republic under the Convention is 425,000*l.*, due to creditors in the following order of priority:—Cape Commercial Bank, 48,000*l.*; railway debenture holders, 85,667*l.*; Orphan Chamber Fund, 27,226*l.* These constitute the first charge. The second charge is the sum of 265,000*l.* advanced by the British Government to the new State at the rate of $3\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. with 2*l.* 10*s.* 9*d.* per cent. added for a sinking fund to extinguish the debt in twenty-five years. This latter sum would have been increased by 383,000*l.*, had the payment of the cost of the war with Secocoeni by the Boer Government been insisted on by the Transvaal Commission. Sir Evelyn Wood, as one of the commission, objected to the remission of this amount, on the ground that until Sir Garnet Wolseley subdued Secocoeni no Government was able to obtain taxes from his people, and he occasioned the Boer Government constant trouble and expense, the last expedition under President Burghers having reduced the republic to the verge of bankruptcy. When we last collected taxes in the country the people were well-disposed and paid cheerfully. Seeing, therefore, that the Boers are about to reap the benefits, both financial and peaceful, brought about by the war, it seemed to Sir Evelyn Wood but just that the Transvaal State should give some return to England for the expense incurred.

After the concession of 1842 most of the Boers reluctantly moved towards the interior, in quest of 'fresh fields and pastures new,' whilst the remainder, who were not so strongly disaffected, dispersed to their homesteads in the higher districts of Natal. A general amnesty having been proclaimed, most of the troops re-embarked, Captain Smith remaining in possession of the settlement. In May 1843 Mr. Henry Clark—Lieutenant-Colonel Clark's brother—visited Natal as 'Commissioner,' his primary object being, it appears, to finally adjust matters as between the Boers and the English. The temper of the Boers was such that he deemed it prudent to be supported by a detachment of the 45th Regiment of Infantry. On his arrival in the capital (Maritzburg) he found many of the unpacified Boers armed. This was due to some alleged misapprehension of British claims. Happily, however, matters were satisfactorily explained and an amicable settlement arrived at, and on August 8, 1843—now over thirty-seven years ago—Natal was proclaimed a State dependency. The administration of the colony's affairs was entrusted to Captain Smith, who in the meanwhile had been promoted to the rank of major, and was assisted in civil and judicial affairs by a *Volksraad*, or

council of twenty-four Boers. Towards the close of 1845 Mr. Martin West was appointed as the first Lieutenant-Governor of the colony.¹ In 1848 Sir Harry Smith visited the colony as 'High Commissioner.' He offered free grants of land to immigrants, which had the effect of inducing some Boers to take up their residence in Natal, and in 1849 immigrants began to arrive under the ill-considered colonisation scheme of Mr. J. C. Byrne. In 1850 Lieutenant-Governor West passed over 'to the majority,' Mr., now Sir, Benjamin C. C. Pine taking his place. In 1851 some more immigrants from England—under different, but equally unsatisfactory, auspices—were landed. In 1853 Maritzburg was created a city.

The bishopric of Natal was now established, the Rev. J. W. Colenso, D.D., who arrived in the following year, being consecrated as first occupant of the see. This illustrious prelate, whose name has so often been prominently brought forward in the press, still continues to be the Bishop of Natal. In the same year municipal institutions were established, and two years later Sir George Grey, then Governor-General of the Cape Colony, visited Durban.

Previous to 1856 Natal formed an integral part of the Cape Colony, and the Government had been administered by a Lieutenant-Governor, who was subordinate to the Governor of the chief colony. In that year, Sir Benjamin Pine's term of office having expired, Mr., now Sir, John Scott landed as his successor. Mr. Scott was the bearer of a Royal Charter erecting Natal into a distinct British colony, free from the control of the Governor of the Cape Colony, and providing for a Legislative Council, consisting of twelve elected members and four official nominees. It was in this year that six of 'M.' Panda's sons were slain in a battle which his eldest son, Cetewayo, waged with them for the purpose of furthering his own ambitious purposes. Cetewayo overcame his brother Umbulazi, and virtually Panda was superseded in favour of his victorious son. In 1859 a sort of coalition was patched up. King Panda was declared to be too old to work or fight, but not too old to think, so that Cetewayo was taken in to share the duties of royalty, the father being termed the head and the latter the feet of the nation.

In 1857 the first session of the Legislative Council was

¹ It has been estimated, though the calculation is of necessity uncertain, that the native population within the colony, which had become larger year by year, had in 1846 increased to 80,000 souls.

opened. In 1859 a system of education was inaugurated. In 1860, H.R.H. Prince Alfred, now the Duke of Edinburgh, travelled overland from the Cape Colony into Natal, and in that year the 'Harbour Loan' was, unfortunately, contracted. The railway from the Point to Durban was likewise opened for traffic. After a seven years' rule, Mr. Scott was, in 1864, succeeded by Colonel Maclean. In consequence, however, of that officer's indisposition assuming a grave aspect, his administrative duties were temporarily fulfilled by Lieutenant-General, now Major-General, Bissett, who in 1867 was relieved by Mr., afterwards Sir, Robert W. Keate. Meanwhile that valuable slice of territory, 'No Man's Land,' now known as Alfred County, had been annexed to the colony. Faku had previously ceded it to the Government, but its annexation had not been formally completed. The lighthouse on the Bluff was likewise opened. In 1865 an extension of the railway was made, and the telegraph between Durban and the capital constructed. A monster memorial about thirty feet long, referring to an objectionable railway project, was forwarded by the colonists to the Imperial Government. In 1872 Mr. Keate took his departure for the notoriously unhealthy West Coast settlements, where, soon after his arrival, he succumbed to the evil effects of climate. His successor in Natal was Mr., now Sir, Anthony Musgrave, during whose term of office the charter of the colony underwent some modification. In 1873, Mr. Musgrave having received an appointment in South Australia, Sir Benjamin Pine resumed the post which he had occupied seventeen years before. At that time an expedition was started against a restless and contumacious native chief, Langalibalele, when, to everybody's regret, three worthy colonists' lives were sacrificed through the—well, this gives rise to reflections upon which it would not be agreeable to dwell. Soon afterwards Langalibalele was captured and expatriated, his sons imprisoned or transported, his location confiscated, and the Amahlubi tribe broken up and dispersed. Panda, the Zulu king—whether he, as has been said, 'killed himself by his laziness and his fatness,' or not—died in the same year. Panda had been thirty-five years on the Zulu throne, and during his reign peace had been unbroken with the English. After the term of mourning prescribed by Zulu etiquette for the death of his father, the coronation and installation of Cetewayo, who had practically assumed the government of Zululand from 1857, took place in the presence of the then Secretary for Native Affairs, Mr., now

Sir, Theophilus Shepstone, who was accompanied by an armed escort, consisting of 110 mounted volunteer troops, and 300 natives, with two field-pieces. Sir Benjamin Pine, because of his decisive action in reference to the Amahlubi tribe, was recalled; and to him succeeded, in March 1875, Sir Garnet Wolseley. His term of administration was, however, uncommonly brief, though marked by certain important and perhaps salutary changes in the form of constitution—changes which were not, however, highly appreciated by those most concerned therein. The resolutions of the Legislative Council upon the report of Sir Garnet Wolseley will be found in the Appendix. From this it will be seen that considerable differences of opinion existed between Sir Garnet and the Home Government. His time appears to have been largely occupied with the pacification of the Amahlubi tribe, and an inquiry into the relations of the native population to the colony. In August of the same year Sir Henry Bulwer was appointed to fill the post vacated by Sir G. Wolseley.¹ He will be remembered chiefly on account of his official connection with the Anglo-Zulu war, which occurred during his tenure of office. Shortly after his arrival a contract for the construction of about 100 miles of railway was entered into with Messrs. Wythes and Jackson by the Crown Agents for the Colonies, and the work, although considerably retarded by various causes, has since been executed to the satisfaction of the Government. The first sod was turned by Sir H. Bulwer amidst much ceremony and rejoicing.

In September 1878, Sir H. Bartle Frere, the then Governor of the Cape Colony, visited Natal in the capacity of 'High Commissioner.' His visit was followed by that of General Thesiger, now Lord Chelmsford. On December 11, 1878, Sir Bartle Frere's famous Ultimatum was formally delivered to Cetewayo's messengers.

To rightly understand Sir Bartle Frere's action at this critical time, it would be necessary to recall the many circumstances and forces which had contributed to determine his spirit and aims, and which eventually led up to the declaration of war with Cetewayo. Suffice it to say that Sir Bartle Frere regarded Cetewayo's military power, which had been built up with so much tyranny, as a constant menace to Natal and the Transvaal, and he was, as everyone now knows, not inclined to half-measures. After an interval of over a month from the date of the delivery of his Ultimatum, the terms of that document—

¹ See correspondence in Appendix.

which, among other things, demanded the disbandment of Cetewayo's army and freedom of marriage—not having been complied with, Zululand was invaded by the British forces. The whole history of the Anglo-Zulu war, from the bravely-fought Isandhlwana battlefield, which thrilled not only Chelmsford's soldiers but the whole of the civilised world with horror, down to the informal annexation of Cetewayo's country, after his own exilement, enters too deeply into the politics of the day and has been too fully chronicled by the press to be yet wiped out of recollection. It would, of course, be outside of the scope of this book to enter into the vexed question as to how far this war was, under the circumstances, defensible. Those who considered there was a stern necessity for the subjugation of the Zulus have been indiscriminate in their praise of Sir Bartle Frere's diplomatic tact, whilst those who considered that no such necessity existed, and that Sir Bartle Frere committed himself too far, have been loud in their censure of that statesman's proceedings, and have sought to fasten upon him the brand of bloodguiltiness. It need scarcely be observed that it is exceedingly difficult for the most unbiassed person to judge justly of such recent events. It is certainly true that the Imperial Government did nothing openly to promote a rupture of the friendly relations with Cetewayo, but it must not be forgotten, on the other hand, that the Government neglected symptoms which were conspicuous to all besides. This supreme crisis in the colony's history may then be passed over; but it ought to be stated that towards the latter end of May 1879, Sir Garnet Wolseley revisited Natal. Clothed with special military and political power, he proceeded to Zululand, where after the capture and exilement of Cetewayo, he created a crude form of constitution for the Zulus. The remainder of his time seems to have been divided between curtailing military expenditure,¹ storming Secocoeni's stronghold, pacifying the Transvaal Boers, and conciliating or irritating the Natal colonists.

¹ The expenditure for the Zulu War amounted to 3,224,301*l.*, towards which the Natal Government contributed 250,000*l.*; the expenditure incurred for the Secocoeni Expedition was 250,000*l.* In reference to the latter expedition, it may be mentioned that in January 1876 Sir Theo. Shepstone, who had been entrusted with discretionary powers to annex the Transvaal to the British Government, found the affairs in a very bad condition. The failure of the commandos against the Chief Secocoeni had demoralised the people, who refused to fight for the republic or pay the war tax, whilst Secocoeni was again assuming an offensive attitude, and repudiated the terms of submission, whilst the Zulus showed signs of attacking the Boers. At length the period arrived when he felt he should act upon his secret instructions. In making the proclamation he justified his conduct in the following

On December 27, 1879, telegraphic communication with England was established. In 1880 the ex-Empress Eugénie visited the colony, and Sir H. Bulwer and Sir G. Wolseley bade adieu to Natal. Sir H. Bulwer was succeeded, in July 1880, by Sir George Pomeroy Colley. His appointment as the first full-fledged Governor was hailed throughout the colony with satisfaction bordering on enthusiasm. His energetic services and powers of resource in 1875, when chief of Sir G. Wolseley's staff, in connection with the adjustment of colonial finances, had evidently not been forgotten by the colonists.

Looking at the last official Consular Return as to the position and prospects of this, which is one of the newest and most promising English colonies, the prospect appears to be highly gratifying. The natives are open to better and more civilising influences than they had hitherto been accustomed to. The settlement of the dispute with the Boers must also tend to promote greater security of life and property and to the development of trade. To quote from the last Consular Report of Mr. C. H. B. Mitchell to Lord Kimberley: 'The day is not far distant when Natal may claim to take her place among the most prosperous communities under Her Majesty's rule.' I have gone fully into the past history of the colony and quoted various authorities, since it is only by looking back carefully to the past that we can judge fairly of the future, and in Natal, as in other colonies and countries, history repeats itself with unerring precision.

terms: 'The purposes contemplated by the mission were purposes of goodwill to South Africa generally; and, in regard to this country in particular, Her Majesty's Government had no objects except such as would promote its real prosperity and advantage in every way. These objects, however, it was earnestly desired to accomplish by and with the concurrence and co-operation of the people and the government of the country itself. But beside and beyond these latter important objects, Her Majesty's Government had felt bound to look at the position of affairs in South Africa generally, which for some time past had caused considerable anxiety. . . . The tendency of what had been going on in this neighbourhood for some time past had been to damage very much the influence and authority of the white man, upon the maintenance of which the very safety, lives, and property of all the inhabitants of South Africa depended—surrounded on all sides as the white population are by overwhelming masses of natives, most of them in a state of barbarism. It was to be feared that they had of late come to think it quite possible to oppose the white man, and that successfully, so that unless preventive measures were adopted, they might combine to a very dangerous extent.' Sir Theophilus advocated unity among the various civilised communities of South Africa, and that, abandoning all jealousies, they should present a determined front to the natives around them. He asked for the co-operation of the people generally. The annexation was formally made on April 12.

CHAPTER III.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION, CAPABILITIES, EXTENT, AND GEOLOGY.

Geographical Position—Physical Geography—Natural Divisions—Counties—Pietermaritzburg—Verulam—Pinetown—Greytown—Acreage—Population—Natal the Gateway of the Dark Continent—Geology—Report of Mr. F. North on Coal Deposits.

NATAL, as a glance at the map will show, is situated on the south-eastern coast of Africa,¹ at a distance of about 5,000 miles, as the crow flies, from the southerly point of the continent—that is, between 27° 15'—31° 5' S. lat., 28° 12'—31° 30' E. long., or about 8° south of the zone of Capricorn.² It lies, then, north-east of the Cape of Good Hope, and nearly midway between England and Australia. It is bounded on the south-east for about 170 miles by the Indian Ocean; on the north-east for a similar distance by the Great Tugela and Umzimyali rivers, dividing the colony from the territory of the Amazulus and the Boers; on the north-west for about 120 miles by the Quathlamba, or Drakensberg, mountain range, conterminous with the Orange River Free State; and on the south-west for about 175 miles by a spur of the same mountain, and the Umzimkulu and Umtanwune rivers. Lying beyond this boundary, and adjoining each other, are Griqualand East, Basutoland, and the Amaponda country. The greatest length of the colony is diagonally, about 250 miles; the furthest point from Durban being only 228 miles.

The physical geography of Natal presents many features of interest. The colony lies wholly between the eastern rim of the great interior tableland of South Africa and the Indian Ocean. At the Drakensbergen the vast plateau is arrested abruptly, and by a descent at first almost precipitous, then in rugged steps, and now in gentle slopes, the land inclines to the ocean shore. Between the rim and the strand there is an average distance of 130 miles.

¹ According to Mr. H. M. Stanley's computation, Africa, the least known of the great natural divisions of the globe, gives sustenance to about one-third of the world's inhabitants—that is, 350 or 400 millions—or, taking its area at 11,750,000 square miles—about one-third the size of Europe—equal to twenty-nine or thirty-four inhabitants to the square mile. On the more recent and reliable authority of Herren Bclim and Wagner, however—who invariably err on the safe side—its population may be set down at 205,679,000 (*not* one-third of the world's inhabitants, viz.: 485,307,366), or seventeen inhabitants to the square mile. Of course, these estimates must be taken with reservation.

² Owing to the difference of longitude, the variation in time between Greenwich and Natal is 2h. 4m. When it is one o'clock in London it is four minutes past three in Durban.

Travelling inland from the coast, the edge of the tableland has the appearance of a lofty mountain-range, the highest point being no less than 10,000 feet high. This is the Mont aux Sources, so called because it is a most prolific watershed. Another point on the ledge, as the Drakensbergen really is; known as the Champagne Castle, is 9,500, while the Giant's Castle is 9,000 feet above the level of the sea. The aspects of the great precipice along its whole length are grand and romantic; and as the land at its foot does not subside to the sea by easy levels but by broken steps, tumbled hills, and sweeping undulations, Natal is everywhere picturesque in its land forms. The region on the right of the road from Durban to Maritzburg, after Pinetown has been passed, is remarkable for its fantastic assemblage of sugar-loaf hills—sugar-loaves with their tops cut off. The midland districts in many parts resemble the South-Downs—rolling sweeps of grass. The coastlands are singularly beautiful, with their rounded bosses, rich in bush and glade; while the shore presents a bold outline with projecting bluffs thickly covered with jungle, and long stretches of land broken by rocky floors and reefs, on which the majestic surf of the Indian Ocean perpetually breaks. Amongst the rivers which skirt or pass through the colony are the Tugela, the Umvoti, the Umgeni, the Illovo, the Umkomanzi, the Umzimkulu, and the Umtamvuna. Not one of these is navigable. Some of them, however, especially in the rainy season, are considerable streams, and all of them have their tributaries, so that the land abounds in watercourses. Cataracts are numerous, and the Umgeni Falls, ten or twelve miles north of Maritzburg, are famous for their beauty. Granite, trap, and sandstone underlie the beds of shale and vegetable soil which form the land surfaces; and here and there these rocks, especially trap, show themselves in bare and eccentric forms. Table-mountains frequently appear, and one of the finest objects to be seen from Maritzburg is Taffel Berg, a splendid specimen of its class, about sixteen miles from the city.¹

The country is naturally divided into three belts or terraces, the coastland, the midland, and the upland; and each belt, owing to the physical configuration of the surface, is possessed of distinctly different characteristics, and distinguished by local peculiarities of climate.

1st. Along the sea-coast, for a distance of from twenty to thirty miles inland, tropical agriculture prevails; the sugar-cane is grown and sugar manufactured; coffee is cultivated and prepared for market; cotton is grown as well as arrow-root. The whole of the district, well-watered and wooded, abounds in stone and brick-clay suited for building purposes, and there is sufficient natural pasture to keep all working stock in condition during the greater part of the year.

2nd. The middle district may be taken from the thirty miles last mentioned to about the latitude of the village of Lidgetton and York, and in this line of country the English and Scotch system of farming and grazing are carried on. Wheat, oats, barley, mealies (Indian corn), turnips, potatoes, and cabbages are all grown. The natural grasses afford pasturage almost all the year round, besides excellent hay for the colder season. The mid-district is well watered, has plenty of timber, abundance of good free- and other stone for building

¹ Silver's 'South Africa.' Third Edition. Silver & Co., Sun Court, 67 Cornhill.

purposes, as well as brick-clay; the climate is, perhaps, the most enjoyable, of either of the other districts, taking the mean temperature through each season.¹

3rd. The upper district, or the country furthest removed from the coast, and bounded by the Drakensberg range, is chiefly a grazing one, although wheat and other cereals may be grown there to a very great extent. Sheep farming is the principal occupation of the inhabitants. Horses and cattle are also bred in great numbers. The former find ready market in the southern portion of the colony, either for home use or exportation. The mineral wealth consists of limestone and coal.

This territory is divided into nine counties, viz. Durban, between Victoria and the Umkomanzi; Victoria, between the Great Tugela and Umgeni rivers; Alexandra, between the Umkomanzi and Umzimkulu rivers; and Alfred, between the Umzimkulu and Umtamouna rivers. These are upon the coast, extending perhaps from sixteen to thirty miles inland. The others, viz. Newcastle, Klip River, Weenen, Umvoti, and Pietermaritzburg, are situated upon the midland and upland zones. Of these, Durban, Victoria, and Pietermaritzburg are the most thickly populated, the two first named being more prosperous and progressive, whilst the latter is largest. Of towns there are only two—Pietermaritzburg, the capital, and Durban,² the seaport; but in such a sparsely populated country a few houses contiguous to each other assume an aspect of importance, and it is nothing unusual for a village to be designated as a town. Though not so large or so populous as Durban, Pietermaritzburg³ possesses the honour of being the seat of civil and military government, and it therefore wears a somewhat dignified aspect. It lies on the trunk road of the colony, about fifty-four miles W.N.W. of the seaport, at an elevation of 2,000 feet above sea-level, and is connected therewith by rail. The city itself occupies a situation of great beauty. It lies prettily in a grassy basin among the hills. As one enters it the sheen of welcome and grateful water is seen through the hanging tresses of the weeping willows, and a deal of foliage is interspersed with the houses. The streets run in parallel lines, intersected at right angles, Commercial Road being the principal cross-thoroughfare. They are long and broad, and in many parts bordered on each side with syringa trees of fine growth, whilst pure, sparkling water may be seen running alongside the foot-

¹ It is but fair to state that some difference of opinion exists on this point.

² For some account of Durban see pages 138 to 148.

³ Pietermaritzburg is compounded of the names of two distinguished Boers, who founded the capital, viz. Pieter Retief and Gert Maritz; 'burgh' signifying, in Dutch, 'a borough.' The European population of the borough is about 5,000. The total value of the borough property was, in 1879, £150,650.

paths. The capital has, of course, many places of public worship, including St. Peter's Cathedral, one of the best proportioned buildings in the colony, banks, clubs, and other public edifices, several schools, a public library, museum, hospital (Grey's), an asylum, and also the Alexandra Public Park, through which the Umsunduzi river flows. There are cemeteries, also a spacious market square facing the Government offices—perhaps the handsomest block of buildings in Natal—a memorial obelisk of deep and mournful interest to colonists. The leading hotels are the 'Royal,' the 'Crown,' and the 'Plough.' Besides these hotels there are several first-class boarding-houses. At the western end of Long Market Street, which is the main business thoroughfare, stands 'Fort Napier,' which dominates the whole town, the head-quarters of the military. Dr. Colenso's residence is some miles out of the town.

A rather extensive business is done in Maritzburg, and the citizens' residences, surrounded by orchards and half-hidden amid the brilliant foliage of flowering trees and shrubs, afford substantial evidence of comfort and prosperity. No one should forego the pleasure of visiting both the 'upper' and 'lower' Umgeni waterfalls. The former cataract is over 320 feet high, and falls in an unbroken vertical sheet.

Verulam is the terminal station of the North Coast line of railway, which runs through some of the best agricultural land under cultivation in Natal. It is a regularly-built, bustling township, situated on the northern acclivity of a hill rising abruptly from the southern bank of the broad Umhloti river. It ranks next to Maritzburg in population, and, owing to its natural advantage of position, is certain to rise in importance. There are two hotels, a church, chapel, mechanics' institute, &c., and on the crest of the hill to the south is a beautifully kept cemetery, whence a comprehensive view of the surrounding country may be obtained. As the whole of the scenery in this neighbourhood is replete with interest, a few days may be pleasantly passed in making various excursions. In fact, Verulam is one of those places where anyone fond of rural scenery and unfettered by local ties would be likely to set up his staff of rest. The Manda waterfall is well worth seeing.

Pinetown, a small village situated in a hollow, fourteen miles by rail from Durban, arrogates to itself the distinction of being 'the Cheltenham of Natal,' nor is the title wholly undeserved. There are numerous points of interest in its vicinity, which the lovers of the picturesque can occupy themselves in exploring. The Umbilo, Umhlaluzani, Horse Shoe, Kraanskloof and other

waterfalls are within easy reach. Visitors can 'put up' either at Murray's modern high-class hotel, or a good old-fashioned one in the village itself. The Umhlaluzani waterfalls should by no means be missed. New Germany, a small settlement, is near Pinetown. Richmond is a rising village prettily situated on a hill about twenty-five miles south of the capital. It is on the main road to the Trans-Umkomaas and Griqualand East. A good trade is done among the well-to-do farmers of the surrounding district. This trade will be still further developed when the village is connected by rail with the trunk line in one direction and the South Coast line in another. The natural scenery disclosed along this line of country, as far as the Umzimkulu river, impresses one with a sense of its beauty, and of suitability for agricultural and pastoral purposes. Besides religious edifices, there is a young ladies' seminary, St. Mary's College, and a literary institute in Richmond. Good accommodation can be had.

Greytown, a village fifty miles north of Maritzburg, is a tolerably agreeable place. The 'Royal' is an excellent hotel, and visitors should, if possible, sojourn there a few days for the purpose of examining the beauties of Umvoti country. The prosperity of Ladysmith and Newcastle is due to their being situated on the trunk road of the colony. In each of the villages churches, reading-rooms, hotels, &c., will be found. The remaining villages are Stanger, Umzinto, York, Hermansburg, Harding, Colenso, Estcourt, New Hanover, Willow Fountain, Weenen, Hawick, Nottingham, and Weston. The colony has been estimated to embrace an area of 20,150 square miles,¹ more

¹ Relative Areas and Population of Natal, 1880.	Whites.	Indians.	Natives.	Miles.
Borough of Pietermaritzburg	6,085	754	3,305	45
County of Pietermaritzburg	2,098	491	44,100	1,853
Borough of Durban	6,736	3,817	3,309	10
Durban County	1,954	2,635	15,459	846
Klip River „	2,315	25	26,650	3,170
Victoria „	1,813	8,814	54,184	1,428
Umvoti „	1,424	...	36,561	1,580
Weenen „	1,086	12	25,945	2,640
Alexandra „	505	1,502	22,000	1,600
Alfred „	225	...	21,469	1,562
Umsinga Division	352	...	23,870	2,916
Upper Umkomanzi and Jaeopa Divisions	970	73	43,800	2,500
Totals	25,563	18,123	320,652	20,150

or less, but up to the date of writing no reliable survey has been made. Roughly speaking, it is about the same size as Scotland, somewhat more than one-half the size of Ireland, about one-third the size of England, and nearly twice the size of Greece.¹ Probably, when a correct survey of the colony has been completed, its area will be found not to agree with the estimate above given; in other words, the area of land remaining, after 5,500,000 acres of Crown Lands are subtracted, will not correspond with the acreage of all the private farms, as per title deeds. Assuming the aggregate average of the colony to be, in round numbers, 13,500,000 acres, it is computed that 6,000,000 acres of this area are in possession of private owners,² 2,000,000 acres are set apart by Government as native mission or college locations, and the balance, 5,500,000 acres—every yard of which could and should have been profitably cultivated for the past thirty years—lies fallow and unappropriated. The European population of the colony has been estimated at 25,563, but as no reliable official returns are available, possibly these figures are understated.³ Assuming, however, that this calculation is approximately correct, it is more than likely that of this number 12,563 live in the towns and villages; this will leave 13,000 inhabitants to 20,150 square miles, or roughly not over one inhabitant to every 10,427 acres of land. Out of the 13,000,000 acres of land which the colony comprises, only 53,913½ acres were returned as under culture in 1880, or (say) four acres to each inhabitant; this estimate does not include the native element. Thus it will be seen that there is ample room for many more Europeans. It may be asked, for how many thousands? Unfortunately, the proportion of arable land to the entire extent of the colony has not yet been ascertained; but an approximation can be arrived at by estimating the unknown quantity by known data. Assuming, therefore, that 250 inhabitants to the square mile be taken as an approximately fair basis of calculation, Natal should, after deducting as much as one-third of its area as being unfit for culture, be able

¹ The Colonial Legislature has recently voted 2,000*l.* towards the cost of a trigonometrical survey of the colony.

² Most of this land is virtually 'locked up' for purely speculative purposes by absentee proprietors. One company alone is said to possess 486,000 acres, of which 102,000 are coastlands.

³ It is owing to the retrogressive policy of the Government in the past that, notwithstanding the salubrity of the climate and the extraordinary fertility of the soil, colonisation has made so little progress. Had liberal inducements been held out to British settlers, great numbers would have emigrated, especially during the last ten years.

to sustain within itself a population of 3,358,500—that is, an average population of 3,012,385 more than it does at present when the entire population consists of 385,448 only. The process of reckoning used in order to arrive at this result is of course crude, but it will serve the purpose.¹ Whatever the estimate, this must be remembered, that Natal itself is but a comparatively small strip of the Dark Continent, and that it will probably soon be ‘settled up.’ Natal is, so to speak, only the gateway to immense tracts of virgin soil equally fertile, in some parts perhaps more so. Such countries are Griqualand East and West, the latter containing 2,500 square miles, and a population of 50,000; the Orange River Free State, which contains, approximately, 70,000 square miles of territory, and a population of 20,000 whites and 15,000 blacks; the Transvaal Republic, with an area of 120,000 square miles, and a population of 50,000 Europeans and 775,000 natives. When these countries are connected by rail with Natal they will assuredly make rapid progress.

The statistics of population are admittedly not entirely reliable, owing to the difficulty, in fact, impossibility, of obtaining correct returns from the natives, scattered as they are over a large semi-civilised and almost inaccessible district. During the unsettled state of the colony in 1880 it was decided to abandon the idea of taking the census, though a law had been previously passed to enable this to be done. The native tax of 14s. per hut, however, enables an approximate estimate to be formed as to the total population of the natives, whilst the European population are accounted for by Government officers, or ‘field cornets,’ as they are called.

Taking the data furnished by these figures, therefore, we arrive at the following results:—

—	Male.	Female.	Total.
Europeans	13,932	11,339	25,271
Indians	10,155	5,413	15,568
Zulu and other natives . .	170,176	188,484	358,660
Total	194,263	205,236	399,499

¹ The ratio of the population of Great Britain and Ireland is 364 per square mile. If the above number be lessened by one-half, even then Natal should sustain 1,769,550 inhabitants, or 1,384,102 more than the present entire population. If Russia, where the density of the population is as low as 34, be excluded, the average of the rest of Europe will stand at 135. It will be seen, therefore, that the above rough estimate is not likely to be very far wrong.

To this total must be added the number of Indians, 3,309, and of natives, 13,862, in the borough of Durban, the census of which omits to distinguish between the sexes; and also of the Newcastle division, in which the field cornets failed to send in statistics for 1880, the previous return of this division showing—

—	Male.	Female.	Total.
Europeans	799	670	1,469
Indians	6	4	10
Natives	4,473	5,597	10,070
Total	5,278	6,271	11,549

The estimated total population of Natal is therefore—

—	Male.	Female.	Total.
Europeans	14,721	12,009	26,730
Indians	10,161	5,417	15,578
Natives	174,649	194,081	368,730
Total	199,531	211,507	411,038

besides 3,309 Indians and 13,862 Natives in Durban, or a grand total of 428,209.

As the surface drainage of the 21,150 square miles which Natal comprises is carried into the warm bosom of the Indian Ocean by twenty-three rivers, besides numerous tributary streams which help to swell the seaward course of the rivers, it may be taken for granted that the country is tolerably well watered. The climate and soil in many parts is favourable to the growth of nearly all kinds of edibles, and fruits grow to a high state of perfection. Even those peculiar to higher latitudes, as well as those indigenous to warmer regions, are cultivated. Indeed, the open-air growth of such a variety of products as are elsewhere enumerated forms in itself an unerring indication of the climate and the vast capabilities of the soil. Of course, as the colony is within the south temperate zone, it is accordingly exempt from extremes of heat and cold, and it offers undeniable inducements to persons intending to emigrate.¹

¹ In earlier years there were considerable tracts of primeval bush, but, to a large extent, these have been reclaimed, at no slight labour and cost, for agricultural purposes. This drawback, so far as fuel is concerned, will, how-

The distance to Natal by the direct sea route is about 6,900 miles. The distance from Natal to the new port of St. John's River is 126 miles, to East London 280 miles, to Port Alfred 400 miles, to Port Elizabeth (Algoa Bay) not quite 500, to the Cape of Good Hope about 800 miles, to Mauritius 1,600 miles, to St. Augustine's Bay, Madagascar 750 miles, to Zanzibar 1,700 miles, to Australia about 5,700 miles, to New York about 7,723 miles.

GEOLOGY.—Hitherto no reliable geological survey of the colony has been made, but numerous indications of mineralogical wealth present themselves in different districts. The following abstract of the reports of Mr. F. W. North, M.E., F.G.S., the colonial mining engineer, will show what that gentleman has discovered in the course of a preliminary examination. It is surprising that, in the presence of such large deposits of both coal and iron, no smelting works have as yet been established.

In the preliminary and partial survey and report made by Mr. F. North, M.E., F.G.S., at the request of the Hon. Colonial Secretary, dated Dundee, July 29, 1880, Mr. North states:—

That he can speak with confidence upon the extent and commercial value of the coalfields in this portion of South Africa.

I believe that good coal may be found, and indicates the various places where the coals have been inspected, and sections taken.

Some portions of the ground through which he passed in a hurried manner may be expected to contain, here and there, deposits of coal, and perhaps a systematic search would reveal them. He is inclined to this opinion, because the coal-bearing rocks and also the carbonaceous shales which always accompany the coal-seams, are certainly to be found in many parts of this area.

Rumours of coal seams upon the banks of the Umvoti river, and near to Greytown, attracted attention in that neighbourhood, but the owners of the veldt here were rather averse to their being worked.

Pagadi's Kop, south of the Tugela, and north-west of the Mooi river, and all the high ground thereabouts, together with the Umumba mountain, north of the Tugela, and a large area of the country in the Umsinga location, appeared likely to yield coals, but beyond the accompanying rock and shales, nothing whatever was found of an encouraging nature.

At Job's Kop, or Elanga, however, where the same rocks occur, six distinct coal seams lie in a vertical height of 200 feet upon the south-east side of the mountain, whilst very similar outcrops may be seen upon the north-west side of it. I have taken sections at twenty-six different places.

It is a source of great satisfaction to be able to submit detailed particulars of the strata at so many places, and this satisfaction is greatly increased by being able to correlate many of the most important ones, and thereby estimate the available quantity of fuel in the ground already inspected.

ever be overcome when the extensive coal deposits of the colony, which have been very favourably reported upon by the Government Mineralogical Surveyor, are, like other latent sources of wealth, opened up.

Samples of the coal and coke from the main seam have been sent to you, and when dealing with the available quantity, it will be from this seam only that the probable produce will be calculated.

The report proceeds:—

Very valuable deposits of magnetic oxide of iron occur in many places, enhanced when in the vicinity of good coals for smelting it. It has been worked in former times by the natives; is highly magnetic; its average specific gravity is 3.254, and from the superior character of the ore cannot fail to yield a most excellent quality of cast iron from the blast furnace; or it may be manipulated into blooms, and then hammered into splendid wrought iron. At various points and also near Job's Kop, these deposits of ironstone also occur.

Although Natal may not be very prolific in precious stones and metals, it appears to have a more solid foundation for industry and wealth in its deposits of coal and iron.

It is a very fortunate circumstance that so much of the land remains in the hands of the Crown, for when properly opened up by railway communication, the mineral wealth contained in it must very materially add to the revenue of the colony. The land certainly contains the main seam of coal, and being an average of four feet in thickness, will yield, after allowing for waste in working, faults, and barren ground, at least 4,000 tons per acre, equal to a total output of 2,400,000 tons for one little patch, said to be about 600 acres, which was once in the hands of Mr. Frederick Still.

Supposing that little farm to be let upon royalty at the fair and reasonable rate of sixpence per ton, the ultimate revenue derived from it would be 60,000*l*.

The coal hereabouts is of good bituminous quality, and, knowing this, it will be well for the Government to hesitate before alienating a single acre of this land until every assurance has been obtained that the other coals near Newcastle or elsewhere are both abundant and of equal quality, because this land is now known to be of value, and for future locomotive purposes would be of the utmost importance if the other districts do not contain the same quality of fuel.

QUANTITY AND QUALITY.—The coal produced at the farms known as 'Dundee' and 'Coalfields' is of the class known as bituminous. The plains of bedding and lines of clearing are adapted to produce a fair proportion of large coals.

Some parts of the seam are very glossy and jet black; and in other places the glossy appearance is changed to a dull compact cubical coal.

The specific gravity of three average examples was 1.373. The bands of shale and partings in this seam have a tendency to mingle with the broken coals; but in some of the best English coal seams this same difficulty has to be grappled with, and the evil arising from the mixture of this interstratified matter with the fuel is only overcome by careful working in the mine, and by sorting on the surface, &c.

The coal burns freely, gives a long flame, with fumes of sulphur in the smoke, and leaves a dark-grey ash. It is a very valuable fuel in its raw state, but I am of opinion that when the sulphur is driven off by converting it into coke, it would for several reasons be more suitable for steam, and especially for locomotive purposes.

Nevertheless, it is a very valuable coal for steam, house, gas, and manufacturing purposes, and I have no hesitation in declaring that it must ultimately become of the greatest importance to this colony, but can only be made of service by cheaper transport than that of the bullock waggon. The average

price of conveyance by that means from here to Pietermaritzburg is 3*l.* 10*s.* per ton, which, with the cost of mining the coal, will prevent it being used so long as the terminus of the line is at that city.

Coal of the specific gravity of 1.373 in the natural bed has a weight per inch thick, per statute acre of 137 tons.

Weight of a cubic foot of large coals in a broken state, 52.31 lbs.

Weight of a cubic foot of small coal, 45.56 lbs.

Average thickness of Dundee main coal, having made allowance for waste in working, four feet.

Number of tons of coal under a square mile, calculated at four feet thick, 3,880,280 tons.

Number of square miles of coal, after a deduction of 50 per cent. has been made for faults, barren ground, or any other contingencies, is twenty-five.

Number of available tons proved by these investigations up to the date of this report are 97,232,000 tons.

The present selling price of the insignificant annual produce is at the rate of 10*s.* per ton.

Samples of coal, and also of the coke that may be made from it were submitted, and also a map of the coal and iron bearing districts.

A supplementary report to the Hon. Colonial Secretary, Pietermaritzburg, states that during the past month, since the preliminary report, which embraced the coalfields of and around Dundee, I devoted myself and staff to the following farms, and the intervening Crown Lands, and we accumulated much information relative to them, viz. Biggar's Gat, Burnside, De Jager's Farm west of Alletta, Morgenstoud, Klip Rand, Mooi Dorn Hoek, Carolina, Gladstone, Stanmore, Prestwick, Maritz, farm belonging to Stephen Vander Westhousie, Doorn Hoek, Annandale, and the recent purchase of Pete Vander Westhousie, Lekker Water, and Oumraki. Upon all these farms coal exists, but not always of a workable thickness or quality.

At the present moment I am busily engaged in opening up the thickest coal I have ever found in South Africa. It is situated upon the farm adjoining and to the west of Oumraki, and belongs to Mr. Meyer, who I believe recently bought it from the Government, and it is not named upon the map supplied to me from the Surveyor-General's office.

This is a compound seam, which may be classed as a dry semi-bituminous coal, and is therefore more adapted for steam than any other purpose; but as some of the bands or layers of this seam are more bituminous than others, and some, on the other hand, approach very nearly to the character of an anthracite, I feel sure that some portion of it will prove suitable for house and smiths' purposes.

From its roof of grey false-bedded sandstone to its floor of black arenaceous shale it measures no less than twelve feet one inch in thickness, and having only four small irregular partings of an aggregate thickness at the outcrop of ten inches, there will not be more than that quantity of spoil, and certainly eleven feet of clear coal.'

CHAPTER IV.

NATURAL SCENERY AND VEGETATION.

*Sport—Wild Animal Life—Birds—Reptiles—Insects—Close Season for Game—
Firearms and Ammunition—Gun Licenses.*

THE following description of the district is taken from Mr. N. Isaacs' 'Narrative of a Journey to the Zulu Country.' This extract shows that the country abounds in a wealth of vegetation which is practically unlimited both in extent and variety.

Nothing could exceed the surrounding herbage, and the rich vegetation which displayed itself on the whole face of the country. A more charming one cannot well be imagined. Clear and limpid rivulets, green hills, and clusters of trees studding the whole, attracted our attention on one side; on the other, the river Umgani, whose banks exhibited a richness of verdure beyond description beautiful. In the distant ground to which our road led, we could perceive that our course lay over mountains rising gently from the sea, and intersecting our way; and ever and anon at a distance, the river, gliding majestically before us, formed altogether a landscape of no ordinary magnificence.

We continued to advance from one eminence to another, through valleys of great beauty, from the peculiarly rich herbage that overspread the surface, and from the surrounding vegetation of all kinds growing in splendid luxuriance. We here met with trees indigenous to this quarter of the globe, the timber of which appeared of a very solid and close texture, and admirably adapted for shipbuilding.

Our gardens were highly promising; everything we had planted, both indigenous and exotic, was growing prodigiously, and indicated that the soil was quite congenial for the latter. We visited most of the kraals around us; at that of Issiburmensa we were agreeably surprised to find the people so comfortably settled, and so well provided for. There was everywhere the appearance of satisfaction and tranquillity, and the people seemed happy under our arrangements and protection. They had about forty huts, and the owners were all engaged in planting; their children were numerous and looking well, and came skipping playfully towards us.

The whole landscape around Natal became changed from one of a wild and savage description to a busy and industrious scene of natives, engaged in that to which before they devoted but little of their time—the labouring of the soil. . . . Natal at this day seemed as if emerging from the savage aspect of its more primitive days. Its plains, its savannahs, its eminences, and its undulations had all an harmonious appearance. Hamlets, with numerous inhabitants, pursuing their avocations of guarding their herds and cultivating their patches of land for corn, could be discerned from every quarter.

The following list comprises most of the vegetable products

of the colony: Aloes, aniseed, arrowroot, barley, capsicum, caraway, castor-oil, chicory, chillies, coffee, cotton, earthnut, euphorbia, flax, ginger, hemp, Kafir sugar-cane (*Imphee*), indigo, Indian corn, Kafir corn, linseed, mustard, nutmeg, oats, rape, rice, sarsaparilla, senna, sesamum, strychnine, sugar-cane, tea, tobacco, turmeric, wheat.

Esculent plants: Artichokes, asparagus, asparagus (wild), beans, beet-root, broccoli, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, carrots, cauliflower, celery, cress (common), cucumber, endive, eschalots, fennel (native), garlic, gherkins, gourds (melons), horse-radish, leeks, lettuce, mint, mushrooms, onions, parsley, parsnips, peas, potatoes (European), potatoes (sweet), pumpkins, radishes, rhubarb, sage, scorzonera, sea-kale, salsify, sorrel, spinach, spinach (native), thyme, tomatoes, turnips, vegetable marrows, yams.

Fruits: Almond, apple, apple (rose), apple (custard), apple (*Kei*), apple (pine), *amatunduluka*, apricot, banana, cherry, chestnut, citron, currants, guava, guava (China), fig, wild fig, filbert, gooseberry (Cape), granadilla, grape, *izindowi*, lemon, lime, loquat, mango, medlar (wild), mulberry, naantjie, nectarine, orange, orange (Kafir), olive (wild), papaw, peach, pear, plantain, pomegranate, quince, raspberries, sorrel, strawberry, *umgwenya*, *umkiwane*, walnut, water-boom, coffee, &c.

In short, to quote Bloomfield's History: 'Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, is stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable of providing almost every necessary convenience and luxury of life within itself.'

Indigenous Trees: Assegai wood, bitter-almond wood, chestnut wood, essen wood, flat-crown wood, iron wood (black and white), iron wood (*umzimbiti*), ivory wood (red), milk wood (red and white), rooi-besseje wood, saffron wood, surrize wood, stink wood, tambooti wood, white-pear wood, yellow wood, yellow wood (bastard). These woods are of various colours, and some of them richly veined and variegated. They are used for turnery and cabinet-making purposes, as well as for building. Being of superior hardness and fine grain, they are capable of receiving a fine polish. Besides the above, foreign trees and shrubs of various descriptions have been planted in the colony, and have flourished. They are being more largely planted every year. The flora of Natal is extremely varied and interesting, and contains some plants peculiar to South Africa. There is a rich profusion of ferns, mosses, &c. Most of the flowers and plants grown in Britain flourish to perfection in Natal with ordinary care.

With respect to the fauna of the country, it is not necessary to say much in these pages, beyond enumerating the variety of animals and reptiles that abound in the colony, and which will afford ample sport and provision also to those who would emulate the doings of the old 'shekarry' Gordon Cumming, and the many other brilliant shots who have found in Africa the happy hunting grounds for which they longed.

The brilliant descriptions of sporting exploits by Cumming, Harris, Drayson, Drummond, and other well-known writers, have been everywhere so greedily read that it is only natural for people residing in Britain to regard any part of south-east Africa as abounding with game of all kinds. In reality, however, this is not the case. At present, there are no large game in Natal. Many years ago, it is true, lions, elephants, rhinoceroses, hippopotami, buffaloes, harkebeeshes, wildebeeshes, leopards, sassyhys, quaggas, and ostriches were not uncommon; but, with the advance of civilisation, wild animals have been either driven further inland or exterminated. With the exception, perhaps, of some hippopotami preserved at 'Sea-Cow Lake,' which are not likely to become living targets for sportsmen, there are no wild animals in the colony. Those who are fond of the chase will now have to go into the Mahlagazi district of Zululand, where, near St. Lucia's Bay, about 160 miles from Durban, excellent shooting may be had. There lions, elephants, rhinoceroses, hippopotami, buffaloes, harkebeeshes, wildebeeshes, leopards, quaggas, and antelopes are plentiful, as they abound also in the Orange River Free State and the Transvaal territories lying beyond the Quathlamba Mountain, or north-western boundary, where, in certain parts, the country is literally black, as far as the eye can see, with herds of large game worthy of the name; their numbers being so great as to exceed computation, and where thousands upon thousands are annually wantonly shot, or rather entrapped, for the sake of their hides. This continuous wholesale slaughter of game is much to be deplored, as unless summarily stopped, they will in time become extinct and a source of wealth destroyed. Even the following varieties of antelope, which used to be tolerably numerous in Natal, are now rarely to be met with in the colony: eland, koodoo, ourebi, duiker, roan antelope, reit buck, rhe buck, stein buck, black buck, red buck, blue buck, blesse buck, and spring buck. Hares, rock rabbits, bush babies, porcupines, meer cats, &c., are not, however, so scarce. Beside these there are the following wild animals: otters, baboons, monkeys, spotted hyenas, tiger cats,

ant bears, wild hogs, wild boars, and sugar-cane rats. The following reptiles are yet to be found in the colony: crocodiles, imambas, puff-adders, pythons, cobras, boa-constrictors, iguanas, and scorpions. Tortoises, chameleons, lizards, &c., are, of course, plentiful; and such insects as centipedes, beetles, crickets, cicadas, cockroaches, grasshoppers, locusts, wasps, mosquitoes, butterflies, moths, ants, fleas, and ticks are also very numerous.

Among the feathered tribe the following are still to be found: partridge, pheasant, plover, pigeon, widgeon, dove, teal, snipe, quail, diccup, korhaan, paauw, wild duck, muscovy duck, wild goose, and guinea fowl. Also eagles, falcons, hawks, kites, crows, owls, secretary birds, cranes, storks, orioles, toucans, flamingos, pelicans, kingfishers, loris, emerald cuckoos, parrots, blue birds, canaries, roibecks, finches, hermit birds, woodpeckers, honey birds, and locust birds.

CLOSE SEASON FOR GAME.

All persons are prohibited by local law from killing or shooting partridge, pheasant, paauw, korhaan, guinea fowl, crane, &c., between September 15 and April 15, and also from hunting or killing bucks, hares, &c., from November 30 to August 15. For shooting or hunting eland, secretary bird, korhaan, &c., a license will have to be obtained from the Governor. A penalty not exceeding 10*l*. may be imposed for any infraction of this law. Law or no law, however, no true sportsman would kill game out of season.

FIREARMS AND AMMUNITION.

For permission to import firearms application must be made to the Firearms Board, Durban, excepting when intended for private use. Europeans are allowed to purchase ammunition on producing the gun and previous registration ticket to the Resident Magistrate, who will then issue another license in the purchaser's name, for which a fee of sixpence is charged. The sale of firearms to natives is prohibited by law. On application to any resident magistrate a 'permit' will be granted which enables the applicant to buy gunpowder, cartridges, caps, &c.

CHAPTER V.

CLIMATE, METEOROLOGY, AND HEALTH.

Variety and favourable nature of Climate—Average Temperature—Sea Breezes—Hot Winds—Comparison with other Countries—The Seasons—Influence of the Mozambique Current—Thunder Storms—Want of Irrigation—Earthquakes—Beneficial effect of the Climate in Consumptive Cases—General Healthiness—Injurious effect of indiscriminate Bush-Cutting—Vital Statistics—Increase of Native Population—Native Statistics unreliable—Precautions against Heat—Rules for Guidance—Injurious effects of Spirits.

CONSIDERING the area of the colony, it presents as great a variety of climate and productions as could well be desired. It certainly does not suffer by comparison with other highly-favoured regions. The latitude alone will afford some index to the diversity of the climate ;¹ but other causes are known to exercise an influence, and the isothermal or climatic zones of the earth are, because of the peculiarities in the conformation of its surface, curved irregularly. Now it so happens that, from the geographical position of Natal and the configuration of its surface, as well as from the composition of the rocks and soil, the mean annual temperature of the coastlands is 69° Fahr. In other parts of the colony it is, of course, lower. There, as elsewhere, the temperature is modified by the various circumstances of elevation, exposition, and nature of soil. For instance, the temperature is slightly lower in Maritzburg than in Durban, but the difference is not more than would be expected.² From the general dryness of the air, however, the heat is felt to be

¹ The colony lies between the parallels of 27° 15'—31° 5' S. Lat., and 28° 12'—31° 30' E. Long.

² The mean annual temperature of Durban in 1858, as elsewhere noted, was computed at 69° 1', and of Maritzburg, 2,678 feet above the level of Durban, at 64° 9'. Yet this slight difference in mean temperature causes a great difference in the vegetation of the coastlands and that of the midlands. On the former, all the fruits met with in the southern countries of Europe are grown in abundance. Sugar-cane, coffee, arrowroot, &c., are also cultivated, and on the lower grounds rice is grown. On the latter district, the fruit-bearing trees are nearly confined to the apple, peach, orange, mulberry, and loquat. Indian corn, tobacco, and cotton, however, thrive, as also do grain and root crops. At different elevations there are all varieties of soil, which seem capable of producing almost every species of grain and vegetable that is good for food.

much less oppressive in the capital than might be expected from the height of the thermometer. The average temperature of the whole colony may be estimated at 64° Fahr. The mercury very seldom sinks to freezing-point even during the coldest winter nights, whilst in the summer season it ordinarily indicates from 80° to 90° at midday—invariably nearer 80° than 90°. The glass may be said to register 94° as a maximum, and 29° as a minimum. The lowest thermometric (shade) reading for the years 1873–80 (both inclusive) at the Natal Botanic Gardens—of course, between 9 A.M. and 3 P.M.—was 42°. When the glass is above 80° it is usually due to the influence of hot winds, to which Natal, like other countries, is at times subjected.¹ Notwithstanding the attention which these meteorological phenomena have attracted, no perfectly satisfactory explanation of the physical causes to which they are referable has yet been given. It is quite possible, and indeed probable, that they owe their origin to the descent of the South-East Trades at the outer edge of the trade wind zone, the air having become heated and dessicated in passing over the sandy plains north-west of Natal, which are but little watered by rivers or rains. But whether this deduction be admissible or not, it is at any rate certain that the variations in temperature in different parts of the upper and lower currents of air, which naturally flow in directions nearly diametrically opposite to each other, tends to bring about a temporary displacement of the normal current of inflowing (and relatively quiescent) sea-air.² Their occurrence is rare—most frequently between July and September, and usually they do not last long—sometimes several

¹ During a period of eight years (1873–80) this figure—90°—has been exceeded but upon seven occasions at the Botanic Gardens. In January and December 1873, the thermometer rose to respectively 99° and 106°, the latter figure being the highest temperature registered in the shade. In September 1875, December 1876, January and October 1878, and January 1880, it reached respectively 99°, 102°, 102°, and 100°. The highest mean annual temperature for the same series of years was 70·34° (1878), and the lowest 68·27° (1880).

² Dr. R. J. Mann, F.R.G.S., whose exhaustive work on Natal is well worthy of perusal by those who desire full information upon the climatic conditions and topographical features of the country, has already drawn attention to this fact. He says: 'It seems very much as if the scorching breeze were the advanced guard of a strong current rushing from the north-west over the high central plains, and carried by its mere momentum beyond the ledge of the Drakensberg, and some distance along the lower slopes, until its forward course is checked by the resistance and antagonism of the denser air setting in from the sea over the coastlands.'

hours, but scarcely ever continue for more than two or three days at a time, after which a thunderstorm, accompanied by a heavy rainfall, is not at all uncommon. This at once cools and purifies the abnormally-heated atmosphere, which for a short time afterwards appears to become slightly charged with a peculiarly subtle but agreeable odour. These warm land winds appear at first sight to be extremely irregular; but when the average of analogous portions of successive years is taken, they are found to be governed by regular laws. As a rule they are of a variable, intermittent character, and differ in temperature considerably. Sometimes they cease awhile altogether, and then commence again with undiminished force. It is to be specially noted that they commonly begin to blow about day-break, when the temperature is at the lowest. They are usually strongest at noon, and they generally give way in the afternoon to cool breezes which spring up from the sea. By abstracting a considerable amount of moisture from the air they naturally cause the skin to feel drier than usual, and in this respect resemble the east wind of England, but they are undoubtedly more endurable than similar visitations in Southern Spain and Italy, where they generally last from one to fifteen days in succession. There is, moreover, this essential difference between the hot winds which visit Italy and those which visit Natal: the former are *moist*, and therefore relaxing, while the latter are *dry*, and therefore of a stimulating nature. To many persons a dozen hot winds would unquestionably be preferable to one treacherous east wind in England. Indeed, some people do not appear to regard these warm winds as either objectionable or unpleasant—rather the reverse. While there are divers natures in the world there will, of course, be a variety of opinions; but, in sober truth, the hot winds are considered by most people to be anything but pleasant. In their descent or passage down to the coast district these dry winds are partially interrupted by the great Quathlamba mountain range, and frequently they are opposed by south-easterly winds. Hence it is by no means an unusual occurrence for a hot wind to prevail in the capital and in the higher districts of the colony, whilst Durban and the coastlands are not affected in an appreciable degree. It sometimes happens that these south-easterly winds are sufficiently strong to overpower and deflect the heated current of air out of its normal north-westerly course, and it then becomes a gentle north-easterly wind on the coastlands, at the same time that it is blowing strongly from the north-west in the higher districts of the

colony. Occasionally the towns seem to be enveloped in a whirlwind, which sends the dust flying in all directions, and causes great discomfort. It is, however, but just to remark that the accounts given of the havoc done by them are frequently grossly exaggerated. They are certainly not more destructive to vegetation than a hot 'nor'-wester' in New Zealand, and they are not nearly so destructive as the hot winds in the southern part of Australia. On the latter continent they blow from the very heart of the desert region, and totally destroy the banana, pine apple, and orange trees, whereas, in Natal, the hot winds, which seldom occur oftener than about twenty days in a year in the midland district, are only injurious to tender plants. The differences in quality of light in Natal are exceptionally great. Frequently on the sunniest summer days, when the light is perfectly dazzling, the actinic rays are 'conspicuous by their absence,' whereas, on other days, when the solar radiance is not especially noticeable, the actinic quality of the light is found to be superlatively good.

The climate of Natal permits open-air occupation to be healthy to Europeans all the year round. But, although business may be, and is, carried on as actively in summer as in winter, truth compels the admission that the noontide heat, after a sequence of moderately-high temperature, is sometimes too great for outdoor work to be quite comfortable, especially to newly-arrived emigrants who have not become acclimatised. There is no disguising the fact that the air is oppressively sultry; the glare of the summer's sun on the sand and the shimmering 'heat-haze' is distressing to the eye, and—what with the sun's direct rays and the reflected heat from the ground—to stand in the street is like standing before an open furnace. Naturally people take the shady side of the way on such days, but whether under the sun or in the shade perspiration exudes from every pore, the skin becomes irritable from the eruptions of prickly-heat, and even the natives feel disposed to complain. On such exceptionally hot-days, Sydney Smith's humorous wish that he could take off his skin and sit in his bones, so that the wind could blow through him, does not by any means seem a bad one. The perspiration is so profuse that when actively employed, it is not unusual to change one's garments in the evening, the underclothing being 'wrung out,' and hung up to dry for next day's use. In the evening, however, this intense heat is changed for a lower temperature, and when one has had a refreshing bathe, it is a real luxury to sit under a wide verandah and inhale deep

draughts of the cool breeze which springs up about sunset. Whether the lassitude caused by such ultra-tropical heat is more injurious to health than the depressing effect of a damp, cold air, the writer cannot say. It is, perhaps, in some degree open to question, although it will be shown presently that the experience of the past seems to prove the opposite to be the fact. But that, all other circumstances being equal, more care is required to preserve health under intense cold than under intense heat, there can be no doubt. This, however, is a matter of individual constitution. The depressing effect of extreme cold upon the vital powers, and the restraining effect of a low temperature upon organic life is considerable; it is well known that different degrees of external temperature impress peculiar physical and moral characteristics upon those who are subjected to them. Happily, the range of atmospheric temperature in Natal is quite compatible with, and particularly well-suited to, the physical constitution of Europeans. In order to make this clear, it will be necessary to make a few comparisons. The mean annual temperature of London is 50° Fahr.; Calcutta is 81° ; Bombay, 79° ; Madras, 84° ; Sierra Leone, on the west coast of tropical Africa is 79° , and the Gold Coast, 81° ; Jamaica, in the West Indies, 81° . While, then, Natal is 14° warmer than London, it is from 15° to 20° colder than Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras; and from 15° to 17° colder than Sierra Leone, the Gold Coast, and the West Indies. Yet thousands of Englishmen spend their lives in those countries, and enjoy good health. The Australian colonies average about the same degree of warmth as, and are in many respects similar to, Natal, but the alteration from heat to cold, or the reverse, is even less in Natal than in Australia. The mean yearly temperature of Melbourne is 57.5° ; of Sydney, 62.4° ; of Adelaide, 66.1 ; and of Brisbane, 70° . The range in the shade is from 27° to 111° in Melbourne, 36° to 107° in Sydney, 24° to 113° in Adelaide, and 34° to 108° in Brisbane.¹ In com-

¹ These remarks might be misconstrued were it not added that this degree of heat has been all but reached in England. The readings of Mr. G. H. Stewart, of the Strand, London, on July 15, 1881, were as follows: At 8 A.M. 78° Fahr. in the shade; at noon, 93° , the maximum during the day being 98° in the shade. At 5 P.M. 90° in the shade. It will be inferred, therefore, that it is from the persistency of the heat, rather than its intensity, that Natal is not the place for those who find an English summer insupportable. Nevertheless, sports and pastimes which require energy are pursued with as much enthusiasm in Natal throughout the summer days as in England. It need scarcely be said that even in an average year the extremes of heat and cold in England are much greater than in Natal, showing a difference of about 80° Fahr.

parison with New Zealand, Natal is decidedly warm. The mean annual temperature of that colony nearly coincides with that of London ; but, of course, some allowance has to be made for the difference in latitude. From its essentially maritime position, New Zealand has also a more equable average temperature. Climatically, the American colonies, Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, &c., cannot be compared to Natal, for although the mean temperature is lower in those countries it is due solely to the glass registering excessively low in the winter season. In those countries, too, not only are the extremes of heat and cold great, but the transition from one season to another is very rapid. From the heat of their summer, American colonists are plunged into a winter so intensely cold as to often freeze even alcohol and quicksilver, *i.e.*, 40° below zero.¹

The climate of Southern Europe—Italy, Greece, Spain, &c.²—is analogous to that of Natal in the summer months, but the winters are generally more severe, and, on account of the rapid changes, are trying to invalids ; whereas, in Natal, the transition from the temperate warmth of winter to the heat of summer is so gradual that it is not felt to be in the least disagreeable ; it is never sudden, and not extreme. Indeed, its diversity of climatic conditions, and even the daily fluctuations in temperature, may be regarded as necessary to the maintenance of health. Moreover, in the colony now being considered, chest complaints, such as bronchitis, pneumonia, consumption, &c., are comparatively unknown. There is no occasion for people to dread the merciless *mistral*, with which the residents of the European Mediterranean countries are so familiar, nor the deadly malaria of which Mrs. Hemans has sung :—

There are bright scenes beneath Italian skies,
Where glowing suns their purest light diffuse,
Uncultured flowers in wild profusion rise,
And Nature lavishes her warmest hues ;
But trust thou not her smile, her balmy breath ;
Away ! her charms are but the pomp of death.

¹ In the Assiniboine district, Manitoba, for example, where 'the fertile belt' of wheat land is situated, the difference between the summer and winter temperature amounts to 67° Fahr., the thermometer varying from 10° to 47° below zero in winter, that is, 79° below freezing point. In New Hampshire and Northern New York, the mercury sinks at times and in some places to 40° below zero—72° of frost. It is scarcely necessary to add that agricultural operations are entirely suspended during the long winter by reason of the severe frosts.

² The average annual temperature in these countries is about 60°, agreeing

'Although so much further north,' remarked Capt. Gardiner in 1836, 'the climate is not hotter than at Capetown, which can only be accounted for by the absence of sands, and the thick mantle of grass, which covers every part which is not occupied with timber.'¹ The winter temperature is variable but delightfully bland. It is, in fact, noticeable for absence of rigour, the weather being just sufficiently cold to be bracing.² The mornings and evenings are, however, cool enough to make those who are not in active exercise wear an overcoat of moderate thickness. In the higher parts of the colony a slight film of ice may be found on the surface of still water at night and early in the morning, but not sufficient to permit of skating being enjoyed. There are snow-storms occasionally in the uplands, though at very rare intervals, and snow may be found for a period of three or four months on the summits of the Quathlamba mountain range, which forms a beautiful feature in the landscape. The serenity of the air during the winter season is a matter of constant remark. The atmosphere is distinguished by its remarkable brilliancy and transparency both by day and by night, while in the mid-winter months—June and July—it is extremely buoyant and exhilarating, creates an elasticity of animal spirits rarely experienced in England, where the weather is as fickle as the most capricious coquette, and where an almost unbroken sequence of abnormally low temperatures and depressing fogs, that can be felt and tasted, also exercise baleful effect upon almost everyone, and seriously affect the death rate, as is shown by the Registrar-General's returns. For obvious reasons coal-fires are dispensed with in dwelling-houses, many of which are not so much as provided with fireplaces. The writer does not remember having seen more than two wood-fires in dwelling-houses even at night in mid-winter, but they were found agreeable. Were the winter seasons more rigorous than they are, it is more

very nearly with the isotherm of that number, which passes through Italy and Portugal near the 40th parallel of latitude. The mean temperature of Lisbon is 61°; of Nice, 60½°; of Mentone, 60·8°; of Cannes, 55° to 60°; of Naples, 58·9°; and of Rome, 60·7° Fahr.

¹ From observations taken at the Royal Observatory, near Capetown, it appears that the excess of mean temperature over that of Capetown is but very slight, varying from 3° to 5° Fahr., and occasionally to 8°.

² It is noteworthy, as a proof of the uniform mildness of the climate, that shrubs and flowers from many parts of the globe flourish with great luxuriance in Natal, whilst others, which require constant care and artificial heat in Britain, grow to perfection in the open air throughout the year. The colony indeed offers a grand field for the operations of the Acclimatisation Society.

than probable that the climate would be even better than it is for Europeans.

The winter season is, however, rendered more agreeable than it otherwise would be by the occurrence of occasional sea-rains, which sometimes last for two or three days in succession. In fact, on the coast, the atmosphere is so largely impregnated with moisture that many of the trees are evergreen, while the hill-sides and the valleys are clothed with flowers and emerald verdure all the year round. It is also worth while to note that when the day's heat is higher than usual, and the nights are perfectly calm, there is a particularly heavy dew-fall, which tends to mitigate the heat of temperature. The clear and generally cloudless winter sky, and the comparatively still atmosphere, is of course favourable to the radiation of heat which has been absorbed by the soil during the day. Hence it is that the mid-winter nights are so delightfully cool. Although there is not so much difference on the coastlands as on the uplands, the year in Natal is really marked by four seasons—viz., spring, extending from August to October; summer, from November to January; autumn, from February to April; and the three following months constitute winter.¹ The seasons are tolerably regular in succession, but of course there, as everywhere else, they are neither equal nor uniform in duration. They vary from year to year. Indeed, in some years the seasons are so ill-defined as to consist of little more than summer and winter—a wet and a dry season. January and February correspond to July and August in England, and are the two warmest months; but instead of July and August corresponding to January and February in England, June and July are usually the two coldest months. The most rainy months are from September to March. Well-known physical agencies, to which it is unnecessary to refer, cause the summer seasons to be both hot and wet; the winter seasons dry and agreeably cold. Vegetation is of course governed accordingly—spring and autumn being earliest along the south coastlands, where, owing to the extra warmth and moisture, and the physical features of the country, the growth of vegetation is pushed forward with greater rapidity than in the midland and upland districts. Rainfalls are most frequent and heaviest on the coast lands. Most of the water which supplies this rainfall is evaporated by

¹ Being in the southern hemisphere, it follows that the periods vary by six months. In midsummer the sun rises at about five o'clock, and sets about seven, while the mid-winter sun rises at about seven o'clock, and sets about five.

the sun from the bosom of the Indian Ocean. This accumulated vapour is then wafted by sea-breezes to the land, where it is condensed in the form of clouds, and falls in fertilising showers; but in this change of state from vapour to liquid a great quantity of heat (the latent heat of vaporisation) is given out, and it is this which gives rise in great measure to the mild climate, the Mozambique current also contributes largely to the same result. Although the rains are generally of comparatively brief duration, they are, owing to the large amount of moisture in the atmosphere, usually heavy and of frequent recurrence; and the average amount of moisture precipitated must be considerable; but the nature of the soil and the general geological conditions of the country are such that, ordinarily, the superfluous moisture is speedily absorbed. The absorption of this deposition in some parts of the colony is so rapid that one naturally inclines to the opinion that large reservoirs exist somewhere underground.

Colonists are made cognisant of the approach of summer by a slight but appreciable increase in heat from mid-day to about 3.30 p.m. As the sun gains in meridional altitude, the solar rays, as a matter of course, become more and more powerful. It must not be supposed, however, that the summer season is constantly immoderately hot; for such, in fact, is not the case. Just as now and then in the mid-winter months days occur when—by reason of the almost continuous clear sunshine, and the comparative absence of thunderstorms and hailstorms—the heat is felt to be nearly as intense as on a summer's day, so, in like manner, sometimes in the height of the summer season, it would appear that the Mozambique current—a great oceanic stream, having an average breadth of about 450 miles, which, after pursuing a south-westerly direction for a considerable distance, flows almost parallel with the South African coast, at a distance of from three to thirty miles from the shore with varying velocity—exerts as remarkable an influence on the climate of Natal as the Atlantic Gulf Stream does, on a larger scale, along the shores of Newfoundland, Ireland, England, Norway, &c. The constant translation—under the sweep of trade winds and the influence of the differences of temperature between the torrid and the southern waters—of such an enormous body of warm water from equatorial regions towards the Natalian shore, where the earth's motion is less rapid, must of necessity greatly affect its climate. The modification of climate by such powerful marine currents is well-known. So far back as the

year 1855, Lieutenant Maury¹ computed that the heat discharged by the Gulf Stream over the Atlantic in a single winter's day would be sufficient to raise the whole volume of atmosphere resting upon France and the British Isles from freezing point to that of summer heat. If that estimate be correct—and it has not yet been discredited by any physicist—who can doubt but that the thermometric influence exerted by the Mozambique current on the climate of Natal is proportionately great? Assuredly a further development of the science of ocean-meteorology, which is still in its infancy, is much to be *desired*. Judging solely by the light of our present knowledge, it is scarcely possible to overrate the climatic influence of that vast 'river in the sea,' the Mozambique current, though it *has not* hitherto been recognised or sufficiently taken into account. Certainly the beneficial influence of this current in equalising and modifying the temperature of the colony can scarcely be over-estimated.

'The climate of Natal,' says the experienced author of the 'Emigrant's Guide,' 'though generally warm, is highly salubrious, and throughout a greater portion of the year is really delicious; the sky being brilliantly clear, the temperature mild, and refreshing rains frequent. Being within the range of the trade winds, the climate is uniform, not fluctuating and uncertain, like the more southern and western parts of the continent. From observation, the extreme range of the thermometer in the shade during 1844 was found to be 41°—namely, from 47° in July to 88° in January. The rainy season begins in the first week in September, and ends in March; comprising the summer months of the year. During the interval thunderstorms are almost of daily occurrence.'

Owing principally to the frequent occurrence of thunderstorms, and the prevalence of land and sea-breezes, arising from the unequal heating and cooling of the land and water,² the standard of day heat falls as low as on an average winter's day. Whenever an exceptionally hot day occurs it is almost invariably succeeded by one of lower temperature, and it is, in a large measure, because of this constantly varying warmth over all the seasons of the year that the climate of Natal is so agreeable to

¹ 'Physical Geography of the Sea.' By M. F. Maury, LL.D., Lieutenant U.S. Navy.

² It is self-evident that the predominance of north-easterly and south-westerly winds is due to the position of the colony with regard to the Indian Ocean, and that the real key to the local climate lies in the fact that Natal is open to the influence of south-east trade winds during one portion of the year.

Europeans. Dr. Mann is correct in saying that 'in Natal newly-arrived settlers often remain for months under canvas, or in slightly and very carelessly constructed buildings, without experiencing the slightest injury. Individuals engaged in transport work pass to-and-fro between the Transvaal territory and the sea-coast, and are weeks upon the road without any other shelter than the waggon and the open veldt, and yet suffer no inconvenience. Instances are continually met with of persons who came to Natal as invalids a few years ago, but who now ride from Durban to Maritzburg in one day with the most perfect ease.' On the coast the months merge into each other by imperceptible gradations. It is worthy of notice that there the length of the summer nights prevents any accumulation of day heat. Excluding the time of morning and evening twilight, which is of much shorter duration than in England, the difference in length of mid-summer and mid-winter nights is but four hours. This is a climatic advantage which is unknown in some countries where there is the same amount of day heat, and which serves the purpose of extracting, at least to some extent, the caloric from the earth's surface. Undoubtedly the sultriness of some of the mid-summer nights, especially when highly-charged thunder clouds hang about, is extremely oppressive; but so also, and more so, are the nights of an English July; but when the black clouds disperse and leave a clear sky, the sense of relief experienced is correspondingly great. It is seldom that they last for days as they do in England. Occasionally the night air is felt to be somewhat chilly. There can be no question that the day temperature is also considerably reduced at this time of the year by the frequent presence of almost motionless masses of clouds, which act as a thick screen and partially intercept the sun's direct rays. Of course, as regular land and sea-breezes are experienced along the coast, the early summer mornings and evenings are usually cool and pleasant.¹

It is at this period of the year, when the sun has attained its greatest power, when north-easterly and south-westerly winds predominate on the coastlands, and when the normal electrical and atmospherical conditions become somehow greatly disturbed, that exceedingly violent thunderstorms and excessively heavy rainfalls are experienced, especially in the upland

¹ To the sanitary influence of marine breezes there is no occasion here to refer, but it may be well to mention that up-country people derive great benefit from a brief residence on the coastlands. There as elsewhere, however, a maritime climate does not suit everyone equally well.

region.¹ Most of these thunderstorms come suddenly—generally, but not always, in the afternoon, from a north-westerly direction, and are only of a few hours' duration. As a rule they do not therefore entail as much physical discomfort as in England, where the rain falls uninterruptedly for days together. The mornings are generally bright and sunshiny, but with a south-easterly wind blowing; towards, or after, noon the clouds gather, and at about three or four o'clock in the afternoon the rain sets in. The rain falls in great quantities without cessation for a few hours, thoroughly soaking the ground; then the clouds scud away towards the sea, and two, three, or even four days uninterrupted fine and dry weather follows.

Sometimes, however, the storm-laden clouds hover about and eventually disperse themselves in torrents of rain for two, three, or more days in succession. After these heavy downpours the rivers, which run in deep channels between well-defined banks, besides having their beds scoured to the greatest depths, are often swelled to such an extent as to become impassable where unbridged. Those rivers that are fed by great rain-basins, owing to the momentum of gravity derived from a rapid fall, come down with amazing rapidity, and in earlier years vehicular locomotion was commonly suspended for long periods at this season.² At such times, when these extraordinarily copious rainfalls continue without intermission for several days together, the swollen rivers prove unequal to carrying off the storm-water, and the neighbouring low-lying lands are partially, and in some places completely, submerged.³ These local deluges, which

¹ On an average of eight years from 1873 to 1880 (both inclusive), forty-two thunderstorms occur each year on the coast.

² At the opposite period of the year these streams, which are now mostly spanned by substantial and elegant bridges, diminish in volume and velocity, and are generally fordable at waggon-drifts, or steep inclines cut through the river banks on either side, where the stream is shallowest, to enable vehicles to cross.

³ It will be noticed that during the eight years specified the greatest and least yearly falls at the Natal Botanic Gardens was respectively in 1874 and 1878; in the first year 55·02, and in the latter 28·24 inches fell. It need hardly be said that this large quantity of water registered is due to the fact that the meteorological office is in proximity of the Indian Ocean. The amount of rainfall necessarily varies greatly in various parts of the colony, at different seasons, and even in the same locality; but not more than would be expected from the configuration of the country and the direction of the prevailing winds. Of course the rainfall diminishes progressively with the advance inland, and becomes more irregular, so that the figures recorded in the meteorological abstracts at the end of this chapter, afford no criterion of what the actual rainfall is over the whole colony. This can only be determined

fortunately only occur at intervals of several years, besides causing great pecuniary loss to agriculturists and others, are not infrequently attended with considerable danger to life. The two great floods of 1856 and 1868 will long be remembered by colonists, on account of the enormous loss and damage they occasioned.

In witnessing these thunderstorms, which both charm and appal, some people feel a thrill of the most intense pleasure—an evanescent exaltation of spirit, whilst others are dominated by abject physical terror. Some able attempts have been made to describe the solemn grandeur of a South African thunderstorm, but the most graphic descriptions necessarily fall far short of the reality. Such magnificent displays of Almighty power altogether transcend description or conception. They require to be witnessed in order to be fully appreciated.¹

Hailstorms likewise occur, and when accompanied by high winds are often productive of serious mischief to crops. In the higher parts of the colony they are of such extraordinary severity as not only to break windows and shatter tiles, but to occasionally kill animals and cut off branches of trees. Fortunately these

by a series of observations in different localities. In an interesting work on Natal, edited by Dr. Mann, F.R.G.S., and published under the authority of the Immigration Board of the colony in the year 1859, the annual mean temperature for the previous year is given as 69° Fahr., and the mean annual rainfall for the same period, 54.12 inches, while the mean yearly temperature of Maritzburg, 54 miles inland, is given as 64.9° Fahr., and the mean annual rainfall as 25.14 inches. The average annual rainfall in Natal, therefore, though abundant, is less than in England, where it varies from 20 to 85 inches according to locality, the average being about 45 inches. At London it is about 24 inches. But the rainfall in England is more equally distributed during the different months of the year. According to Professor Geikie, 68 cubic inches fall on the British Isles in the course of a year.

¹ The following precautions ought to be observed when caught in a thunder-storm: travellers should keep to the open country rather than the bush, and hasten away, in a direction different to that taken by the storm. When in the bush a crouching posture should be maintained, and get out as quickly as possible into the open. Avoid isolated trees near rivers and fens. When on horseback, lie down over the horse's neck. When travelling with a bullock-waggon, after outspanning—if in the vicinity of a fen, to the windward of it—remove iron *trektouw*, chains, &c., to a considerable distance. When sleeping in a tent, place the bed as far as possible from the tent pole, and raise it well from the ground. Place an inverted glass bottle on the spike at the end of the pole. During the continuance of a thunder-storm the processes of decomposition go on with augmented rapidity, especially when the thermometer registers a high degree of temperature; special measures should therefore be adopted for the preservation of meat, fish, poultry, and other perishable commodities.

storms are not of frequent occurrence, and are, like the thunderstorms, comparatively of brief duration.¹ Dry seasons have been experienced, but they are the exception and not the rule, and Natal enjoys a happy immunity from such severe droughts as the Cape Colony is subject to, and which appear to recur at periodical intervals. Still, notwithstanding the uncertainty of the seasons, the rivers are not utilised for irrigation, although irrigation is possible almost everywhere, and at no great expense. Considerable loss must therefore arise. Earthquakes, too, have been felt in different parts of the colony, but not of a violent character, though sufficient to make themselves felt over a considerable area. Their occurrence is very rare, and in every case the oscillations are so slight as to cause no feeling of uneasiness. They seem to have already spent their full force elsewhere, and no loss of life or serious damage to property occurs from them, beyond perhaps the settlement in a wall or other trifling damage. There are numerous springs, both cold and thermal, but their number, temperature, or medicinal properties have not yet been ascertained.

The dry season lasts from about the end of March to the end of September, during which period the rainfall is insignificant. The larger streams preserve perennial flow of water, being fed by springs which rise in the Quathlamba mountains and by melting snow, but they decrease in volume considerably, while the smaller ones are much shrunk, and either dribble along sluggishly, or cease entirely after a succession of dry seasons. As a rule, fresh breezes of varying intensity prevail on the coastlands, chiefly from the north-east: towards the afternoon they veer gradually round from one point of the compass to another, until towards sunset they may, as likely as not, come from the opposite point, or they may sometimes even go the whole circuit from north-east round to north-east again. As at times they blow with great force, their mean velocity must be considerable.²

¹ During eight years—1873–80—according to Mr. Keits' observations, hail only fell on nine occasions at the Botanic Gardens. The hailstones are generally much larger than those in England.

² The general direction of winds at the Botanic Gardens, for the period from 1873 to 1880 inclusive, will be found at page 150. These tables have been abstracted and constructed from the meteorological observations of Mr. Keits, which were kindly placed at my disposal. Of course, the force and direction of winds are often very different in the midland and upland districts of the colony. Besides this, it must be said, the site of the Botanical Gardens is not the most favourable spot that could have been selected for recording meteorological observations, and it is difficult to know why this particular locality has been chosen by the Astronomer-Royal of the Cape for the erection

but no such terrific hurricanes as are experienced in the Cape Colony are ever encountered. As the natural result of the climatic conditions just described, the air on the coastlands is moist and warm, and the temperature equable, whilst further inland the air is relatively dry and cold, and exhibits greater diversity of temperature.¹

Having given these meteorological facts and figures—and neither too much nor too little must be deduced from them—the question now arises, Is the climate healthy? It has already been stated that it is; but as the question of climate is of peculiar interest to all, and of paramount importance to the intending emigrant, since even amongst Europeans, who do not lack education or intelligence, erroneous ideas prevail as to the healthiness of this colony, it may be as well, before proceeding further, to establish this point. In order to do this, it will be necessary to adduce irresistible and unimpeachable testimony. On this subject Dr. Colenso, the distinguished nineteenth century controversialist, says:—

of a new Government observatory for recording meteorological observations characteristic of the whole colony. It may be observed that during the above period there were 127 gales.

¹ It seems not unreasonable to infer that the normal humidity of the climate has been appreciably affected, since the occupation of the colony by the British, from the extensive 'bush-clearing'—on the coastlands particularly—for purposes of cultivation and fuel. Of late years, this denuding process has, it is true, been partially arrested, and coal-fuel substituted for wood at some sugar mills; but there are no evidences, excepting near Maritzburg, of any judicious attempt to compensate nature for past tree destruction. There has been no decisive legislation for the conservation or replanting of indigenous or other forest trees. The present supply of wood fuel is deficient, and judging from the increasing annual consumption—unless indiscriminate tree-felling is compulsorily stopped, or tree-culture extensively resorted to—the remaining limited area of primeval 'bush' will soon be exhausted, whilst in order to supply future fuel requirements coal-mining operations will become necessary. Drought and heat will, as a matter of course, be considerably intensified. This matter should engage the serious attention of colonists. By enclosing all the estates with quick-growing blue gum, black wattle, and other trees, and the planting small groves of fruit trees, much could yet be done towards compensating nature for the reckless denudation of former years, which has completely altered the aspect of the whole country. The heat and drought would be capable of amelioration to a great extent by such plantations, as the country would never be wholly destitute of foliage; but, apart from this consideration of beauty, the actual value of estates would be materially enhanced. Notwithstanding the want of timber, licenses are still allowed to be taken out for cutting timber on the Crown Lands on certain conditions. The evils of indiscriminate tree-felling have been fully exemplified in many parts of North America, and the Colonial Government would do well to profit by their experience.

'For many families in which consumption may be dreaded, or may be actually disclosed, in some one or other of its members, a speedy removal to Natal would, under God, I believe, be a most beneficial measure. I have had brought directly before me, and can vouch for them, more than one instance of complete restoration, by such a step, from attacks of this malady, which in England would soon have proved fatal.'

Dr. Mann, F.R.G.S., who is distinguished for his scientific attainments, and was for some time Superintendent of Education in that colony, says:—

'The grave forms of malarious and intermittent fevers are entirely unknown in the colony,' though 'fevers connected with primary derangement of the digestive organs, and thence assuming the type known technically as gastric and hepatic, occur occasionally during the season of transition which lies between summer and winter. Diarrhoea and dysentery,' however, as Dr. Mann correctly observes, 'are of somewhat common occurrence upon the first decline of the greatest heat.' At this transition period of the year sickness is, of course, more prevalent than at any other. The so-called Natal sores are very troublesome, and require careful treatment as well as regular living. 'The climate proves,' Dr. Mann goes on to say, 'eminently serviceable to those who manifest a tendency to consumptive diseases, provided the benefit of its influence is secured to them before the malady has made decided progress.'

Another medical practitioner adds to this statement by averring that 'though Natal presents in many parts the physical character of a country likely to produce fever, dysentery, and other diseases of a tropical country, I can say, from extended experience, that it enjoys a singular immunity from disease of every kind. During four years' residence I witnessed but two cases of fever, both occurring after extreme exhaustion and protracted dissipation. Occasional cases of dysentery and disease of the heart are to be met with; but these can in most instances be attributed to excessive indulgence in spirituous drinks.'

A settler gives the following further information in regard to the climate:—

'The climate of Natal, though generally warm, is never so oppressive as the sultry weather so frequently occurring in the course of an English summer. There is not the stagnation in the atmosphere so productive of lassitude and weariness, neither have the inhabitants that yellow, sickly appearance so peculiar to hot climates.'

The late Dr. Seaman, who from personal knowledge was qualified to speak with authority on the subject, regarded the climate as 'extremely salubrious . . . and especially suited to individuals suffering from emphysema, chronic bronchitis, asthma, and all affections of the lungs,' and he considered that 'chronic rheumatism, gout, and calculus disorders (*calculous diathesis*) were all much benefited by a residence' there.¹

Sir Bartle Frere says: 'The climate and general conditions of life are such as suit men of European race.'

The *Natal Mercury*, in a leading article on this subject, says: 'The general average of health and life will bear comparison advantageously with the experience of other countries.'

The writer trusts he has advanced sufficient testimony, unbiassed by local prejudice or misled by enthusiasm, to indicate the salubrity of the climate, and he purposely excludes further independent testimony to the same effect, lest in doing bare justice to the climatic excellences of the colony he should appear to be exaggerating. His object is to fairly state facts that cannot be doubted, rather than exhaust all that can be said in favour of the climate. It may be added, however, that as the quarantine rules and regulations are carried out with strict and impartial rigour by the Government, virulent diseases, such as cholera, yellow fever, &c., which are endemic to most tropical countries, or especially the coastland districts, are happily unknown. Epidemics of any kind are of very rare occurrence, and the writer has reason to believe that the opinions of medical men resident in the colony would tend to confirm the joint testimony of such authorities as Dr. Colenso, Dr. Mann, Dr. Seaman, Sir Bartle Frere, the editor of the *Natal Mercury*, and others.

Instead of attempting to manipulate the official vital statistics in such a manner as to sustain any theory of his own, the

¹ The treatment in cases of diarrhoea, dysentery, fever, &c., necessarily depends largely on the predisposing and exciting causes; so much so, indeed, that the writer considers any attempt to suggest remedial measures in these pages would be of little use, since so much depends on the constitution. There are various works published which contain many useful hints for emergencies for the guidance of emigrants; but whenever possible, recourse should be had to competent medical advice, and the emigrant cannot be too fully impressed with the fact that these complaints require instant attention. The consequence of injudicious or ignorant treatment may prove fatal. In all such complaints the treatment, to be successful, must be subservient to, and modified by, the symptoms which arise during the continuance of the disorder. There can, of course, be no question as to the unwisdom of sitting in a draught when overheated, or of eating under or over-ripe fruit and indigestible food. In Natal, meat three times a day is often the rule, but it is not a good one.

writer will content himself by stating that whereas the average death-rate of England is about 22·3 per thousand of the population, in Natal it is not more than 16,¹ and even this high percentage is on account of the lack of an unlimited supply of pure water, which could be readily and easily obtained, the denudation of the country, defective sanitary condition of towns and villages, and other controllable causes. Were these causes and influences which are so inimical to health removed, the death-rate would be perceptibly lowered. It may be legitimately inferred that the colony is capable of supporting a considerable population of Anglo-Saxons. In judging, however, of the comparative healthfulness of different countries, the annual mortality alone is of course not to be relied upon. It is desirable to know something of the causes of mortality, what proportion of the European inhabitants are ailing from various causes, and what the average health is among the native races. Unfortunately the writer has no reliable data which would enable him to answer the first and second of these points explicitly. The first point has been partly answered. As to the third, the natives take no note of time and keep no account of their burials; there is therefore no means of correctly ascertaining their longevity. A notable feature in the colony's favour, however, is the growth of the population by natural increase, while the general sprightliness, comeliness, and intelligence of colonists' native-born children is the subject of frequent remark on the part of visitors. It may be said further that there has been no deterioration of the British race in this portion of South Africa, for it is a well-known fact that, notwithstanding the continual intermarriage between certain families, and among the descendants of the Dutch Boers, who have occupied the country for two centuries, the natives are distinguished by their fine physique. The military sanitary returns have been of such a satisfactory character that it has led to the suggestion that a sanatorium for British India might be advantageously established in the colony. When troops whose constitutions have been impaired by prolonged residence on the plains of the coast are withdrawn from India, they should certainly be stationed for

¹ The death-rate, it will be observed, is not quite as low in Natal as in New Zealand; the number of deaths in that colony being 12 per thousand; but it is lower than Australia, the death-rate of the white population there being 19 per thousand. The population of Durban county in 1879 was about 8,960, and the number of deaths 390, while the population of Maritzburg county was 8,173, and the number of deaths 322.

some time in Natal to recruit their health, instead of being removed immediately to England.

The geographical zone in which Natal is embraced is the same as that of Upper Egypt in the northern hemisphere,¹ and its climate is pre-eminently favourable to persons suffering from, or exhibiting a fatal predisposition to, that great 'scourge of Great Britain'—pulmonary phthisis, or tubercular consumption. Moreover, this fact has attracted the attention of the faculty. Patients in the incipient stages of this dreadful malady have derived great good, though not permanent relief, from a brief sojourn there, whilst others who arrived in the colony in a condition so weak as to be scarcely able to walk, were spitting blood, &c., and of whose cure there was grave doubt, having been sent out in fact as a last resource, have, to the amazement and gratification of their friends, rallied in a surprisingly short space of time—sometimes in the course of a few months. For incipient consumption the light, dry, tonic atmosphere of the uplands is a specific; and of the eventual restoration to a normal degree of health there can be no manner of doubt. It is, as the saying has it, only a question of time. In cases of a too pronounced character the result of any change will, however, be exceedingly problematical. But in every case, and at any time—when the disease has not gone so far as to unfit the patient for the sea-voyage—the change may be expected to prove beneficial immediately. The soft, mellow, health-giving atmosphere of the coastlands soothes the irritation which in such cases is so distressing, while the crisper air of the uplands is more favourable to cure, though the high winds of the uplands are somewhat trying to abnormally-sensitive lungs.² It is not to be expected, however, that as a rule doctors will encourage very strong hopes of their patients' recovery, lest they may be giving rise to expectations which will never be realised. In certain cases—pulmonary phthisis more especially, for it is well-known that

¹ Cairo, in the corresponding north latitude, comes nearly under the isotherm of 70°. Its mean yearly heat—72° Fahr.—therefore barely exceeds that of the coast district of Natal, but taking the general aggregate of weather throughout the year, it possesses an essentially different climate.

² As before indicated, however, the temperature is not so well-regulated in the higher districts of the colony as on the coastlands. Naturally, the proximity of the Quathlamba mountain range, which for three or four months of the year is covered with snow, and the elevation above sea-level, causes considerable variations in temperature. The climate of the midland zone is of a mixed character. It is sensibly warmer than the uplands, but not so mild and balmy as the coastlands.

extreme heat (that is, over 70° Fahr.), accelerates the progress of the disease—the cooler and more rarefied air of the Orange Free State is still more invigorating. In other cases, again, it may be found more advantageous to change one's place of residence, according to the season of the year, rather than to reside in any given locality throughout the whole twelve months; but this necessarily implies the possession of considerable means.¹ It is doubtless a cruel wrong to send off dying consumptives from the land of their birth to a distant colony, where they will be deprived of the attention and society of their friends, and the superior comforts and resources of an English home; but the beneficial influence of a sea-voyage, and a complete change of climate, of scene, and of society in many cases is well-known; still, the extent and the permanence of such remedial influence can easily be exaggerated. While, therefore, ordinary cases can be cured in the colony, others that seem desperate in England can be measurably relieved. The evil is that in too many cases the voyage is postponed until it is too late. There is, however, no greater mistake than to place too much reliance on climate alone. The force of this remark will be best understood by those who have noticed the irregular habits of many invalids shortly after their arrival in the colony. Too often, unfortunately, when they begin to experience an improvement in their feelings and general state of health, they neglect personal hygiene, and live as recklessly as those who are strong and healthy. The consequence is, they overtax their strength, and thus frustrate the good of the voyage, if they do not cut short their natural term of life. It would be wonderful indeed if their health did not suffer. People require still to be careful of their health. When too far gone—that is to say, when both lungs are seriously damaged—the Natal climate would, of course, be more likely to aggravate than retard the progress of the disease. It would only accelerate the fatal termination of the disease, and this would tend to bring the climate into disrepute. This, perhaps, everybody knows; but the fact is, men do not act in accordance with their knowledge, and hence the necessity of being outspoken.

It has been estimated that one-eighth of the entire mortality of England arises from chest disease, and it is only reasonable to suppose that when the climatic advantages of this colony

¹ Persons who wish to read more on this subject may consult, in addition to the work of Dr. Mann previously cited, Messrs. Silver & Co's 'Handbook on South Africa,' and Mr. John Robinson's interesting 'Notes on Natal.'

become better known, it will be more frequently resorted to by invalids for the relief of pulmonary complaints. Without unduly depreciating the climate of Madeira, it may be observed that there is no comparison between it and that of Natal, for, however beneficial it may be, and doubtless is, for some invalids, it is, as some one has said, too uniform to be anything but enervating to those in the full possession of health.¹

Before concluding these observations, it may be well to offer some general considerations touching this subject. As has already been remarked, for one-third of the year Natal possesses an almost ideal climate. The warmth and softness of the air are truly delightful. In such a genial, sunshiny climate even the frail and sickly grow healthy and happy. They secure a new lease of life, and contribute to the enjoyment of others; whereas in the keen, damp climate of England they would, as the Bishop of Natal points out, perish. The extreme susceptibility of some apparently well-knit organisations to climatic influences is truly remarkable. How many tens of thousands of people there are in England who, though by no means endowed with extra sensitive nerves, can yet, with every door and window closely shut, tell the approach of an easterly wind as unerringly as the sensitive Australian plant can the approach of a person, whilst others again are physically unconscious of any change in the wind's direction. In some parts of England the persistence of these peculiarly penetrating winds cause violent headaches, excessive dryness of the skin and mucous membrane, and irritation of the bronchial tubes. No speculator, therefore, notes the rise and fall of the money market with more feverish anxiety than many people do the wind's direction. Now, such being the case, instead of voluntarily imprisoning themselves for the greater part of the year, or of going from place to place 'their health to succour and their cares beguile'—from the south or south-west of England to Madeira or the South of France, from France to Egypt, and so on—would it not be far better for these numerous sufferers to go at once to a more genial clime, where they could day and night breathe air of extraordinary purity, and where 'due orientation' causes no inconvenience to those who have delicate lungs? Instead of remaining in this extremely variable climate, where the weather is proverbially 'every thing by turns and nothing long,' and suffering from a catalogue of distressing ailments that are enough to make life itself a burden, would it not be wiser for them to permanently reside

¹ The mean temperature of Funchal, Madeira, is about 67°.

in a more favoured clime, where they could recruit and renovate their physical powers, where those who, 'in this harsh world draw their breath in pain,' can slumber soundly without the aid of narcotic drugs, or the fear of suffocation from inability to respire; where, under the influence of genial sunshine bronchial affections fly like darkness before the light; where—to perpetrate an atrociously old pun—fog is *missed*; ¹ and where, even though it may not always be possible to be permanently reinstated in health, one can at least 'live a life worth living,' and with a reasonable prospect of amendment? It is well known that the spirits of ailing people naturally run *too low*, and that they are susceptible of elevation to a wonderful degree by bright surroundings and inspiring scenery. In Natal these are everyday conditions; and gentle exercise which can be carried on in the open air almost daily throughout the year, either on foot, horseback, or driving, is certainly better for delicate people, or invalids, than lounging in comfortably cushioned armchairs before blazing coal fires in England. To return from this digression, if digression it be, everything considered, the bleak and variable climate of the British Isles, with its indigenous fogs, rains, sleets, and east winds, is no more to be compared with the exquisitely warm climate of Natal than a hothouse peach sold by English hawkers at a shilling is to the fine, juicy, temptingly luscious fruit sold in that colony at sixpence per hundred. Natal is, therefore, becoming more and more a residential colony. Every year the number of Europeans visiting the colony increases. The majority of British colonists not only live, but they thrive better in the finer air of Natal than in their native land; not only do they endure, but they positively enjoy the climate. In his book 'A Tour in South Africa'—a work of acknowledged merit—the Rev. J. J. Freeman, formerly Home Secretary of the London Missionary Society, says: 'A remark which I have heard made in reference to immigrants is, I think, just, that there are very few who, within the first few months of residence, do not wish to return; and but very few who do wish it, or would be willing to do it, after a three years' residence.' The correctness of this shrewd and independent opinion, formed many years ago, has been confirmed by many later visitors, and the writer has good reasons for believing that it would to-day be confirmed by the united testimony of Natal colonists. Business men know full well that

¹ Mists are rare, and during the eight years 1873–80, there were only fourteen light fogs at the Botanic Gardens.

everything depends upon the physical capabilities of themselves and their families, and that the range of climate and scenery found in Natal is well calculated to foster and sustain those vital energies which should be so much desiderated by all. The attachment of European residents, then, arises from the climatic excellences of the colony during the greater portion of the year, together with the variety of its scenery, and the richness of the soil. Hence it is that they are not anxious to leave the country of their adoption so soon as they acquire a competency, like residents at such places as East London, Algoa Bay, and Cape-town.

Indeed, numbers of colonists with a competency revisit England, but very few remain more than a year or two. Whether as a place of temporary abode or as a permanent residence, Natal is equally desirable. There are few places more conducive to longevity and general freedom from disease, especially from those pulmonary complaints so prevalent in England, or where life is more thoroughly enjoyable. Allusion has already been made to the hot wind. It is decidedly the worst feature of Natal weather; but, fortunately, such winds are of short continuance, and only occur about twenty days throughout the year in the higher parts of the colony, and less frequently on the coastlands. On the whole, then, it will be seen that health is no more precarious in this colonial dependency than in England. But the change from an English winter to a Natalian summer necessitates the adoption of certain precautions and rules, as well as a change in one's mode of living. Much sickness is preventable by abstemious living and by observing the ordinary laws of health. In Natal, as in England, June is ordinarily one of the finest months of the year; but there is this difference, that in England the air is thick with smoke from manufactories, and the nights are warm, whilst in Natal the air is approximately pure, and the nights are deliciously cool. The weather is lovely, resembling that of the south of France in March. Day after day the sun shines in a clear sky, while the nights are for the most part clear and starlit. By landing in the colony during that month emigrants would have time to become gradually inured to the climate before the summer season set in. The physical inconvenience resulting from changing one's place of residence would thus be greatly lessened. Too much stress can scarcely be laid upon this fact. No one should leave England later than October. Those who, heedless of consequences, time their departure from England so

as to reach their destination at the summer solstice may have cause to regret their temerity. The sudden transition from an intensely cold winter to a tolerably hot summer is not unattended with danger, and were the mean temperature not less than from 79° to 84° Fahr., as in those countries in the torrid zone already referred to, it would have a deleterious effect on the emigrant's constitution. As it is, however, indisposition, due to the first effects of sub-tropical heat, would probably ensue; this of course depends greatly on one's age, habits, and state of health. In any case, much personal inconvenience would be experienced, which might produce an undeserved prejudice against the climate. To imagine that an excess of solar energy does no harm to those who are not inured to the vicissitudes of a sub-tropical climate is to suppose what is contrary to both reason and experience. Prolonged exposure to excessive solar heat is very trying to everybody but to those who are not acclimatised, and to those who are physically enfeebled, or who have a natural tendency to organic disease, it is especially so. On the emigrant's arrival, therefore, great care should be taken to avoid over-exertion and needless or undue exposure during the hottest hours of the day.¹ That some ailments are primarily due to excessively hot weather, as others in higher northern latitudes are similarly due to intensely cold weather, there can exist no doubt. It follows, as a matter of course, that it is unwise to expose oneself unduly. Though some people with vigorous constitutions, or who have become Natalianised, may occasionally do so with tolerable impunity, still it is not wise so to do. It is, in fact, to court sunstroke or asphyxia. In like manner the Portuguese residents, who are acclimatised to pestiferous Delagoa Bay, defy the deadly malarial fever of that district, where 'sanitary science' is entirely ignored, but it would not be well for Europeans to neglect precautionary measures. Indeed, with the most robust constitutions, and with

¹ When exposed to the direct solar rays at mid-noon, it is advisable, as much as possible, to keep the face toward 'Old Sol,' so that the spine will be in shadow. A light, broad-brimmed, and well-ventilated hat—with a white cambric puggie twisted turban-fashion round the crown—should be worn. The ends of the puggie, which may be wetted now and again, should be allowed to fall about two feet over the back of the neck and shoulders. As to habiliments, it may well be supposed that in a warm climate the material is of less consequence than its looseness and roominess about the person. Of course, lighter clothing is generally worn in summer than in winter, and—more especially to preserve the abdominal viscera from the effects of atmospheric vicissitudes—fine flannel or merino under-garments should be constantly worn.

any amount of 'coddling,' they would not live long there, and for people to fritter away their energies in a place which has the unenviable distinction of being the unhealthiest part of South Africa would be insane folly.

There is another matter which is of the first importance to be considered, namely, the character of one's dwelling and of the soil on which it is built. Were more attention paid to the nature of the soil, its colour, degree of moisture, &c., and were dwelling-houses always constructed with due regard to sanitary requirements, there can be no question that the death-rate would be much lower than it is. Some remarks on this subject will be found at page 97. Emigrants, until they have undergone the acclimatising process, are apt in the heat of summer to crave for copious draughts with which to allay the consuming thirst which all more or less experience on their first arriving in the colony; but, as a rule, it is best not to indulge freely in any form of liquid. To conquer this craving they should confine themselves as much as possible to their usual quantity, and sip it leisurely. They should also bathe their wrists frequently with cold water. To those persons who do not care to partake of alcoholic beverages, lemonade made by pouring boiling water on fresh lemon-juice and loaf-sugar, can be recommended as pre-eminently refreshing. When cold it should be strained, and a lump of ice added. Unless over-sweetened, it will quench thirst immediately. Citric acid or lime-juice may be substituted for lemon-juice. Iced water alone is largely used. It affords a means of assuaging one's thirst without depressing the nerves, and when not taken in excess does no harm. It is not, however, always obtainable, and is at all times rather expensive.¹ Milk and soda-water is also a thirst-quenching beverage, but should not be drunk early in the morning. *Amasi* is a refreshing fluid, but is not easily procured. Water-melons are, of course, in great request. It is an entire mistake to think that a copious indulgence in (iced) wines or largely-diluted spirits will slake thirst more effectually than pure, soft, cold water.² It is a

¹ Ice should be bought in large blocks, packed in 'heaps' of sawdust and shavings, and kept in a cool, dark cellar till wanted.

² Drinking water of doubtful purity should be boiled for half-an-hour, and, when cooled, filtered. This will remove earthy or vegetable matter either in a state of suspension or solution, and destroy infusoriae. Extra hard water may be distilled; it will then be soft and chemically pure. A cheap sand and charcoal filter can readily be improvised. It should be frequently cleansed and renewed: a dirty filter will contaminate instead of purifying. It should not be placed in one's bedroom, nor should the cover be left off.

still greater mistake to indulge in ardent spirits during the warmest weather. A knowledge of the physiological effect of a heightened temperature ought *alone* to prevent their use. To partake of spirits *then*, even in almost inappreciable quantities and considerably diluted, will only create greater demands upon those organs which have already extra work to do, and precisely at a time when they are most likely to be too languid and inert to perform their ordinary functions. It is quite possible that, temporarily, vital energy may in some degree be augmented thereby, and extra activity may be imparted to the circulation; but Nature is not to be coerced in that way, and it is scientifically demonstrable that the re-action of such needless excitement is prejudicial to health. It is well-known, too, that the tendency to indulge in the use of intoxicants is strengthened by frequent repetition, just as the appetite grows on what it feeds on. The testimony of Dr. W. B. Richardson, F.R.S., than whom there is probably no more reliable authority on this subject, may be cited on this point. Recently, lecturing in Manchester, he said that in Natal, as in all other warm climates, the use of ardent spirits should be avoided. The abuse of alcohol is fatal. It is a well-known physiological fact that the attraction [of alcohol] for itself is cumulative. That so long as it is present in a human body, even in small quantities, the longing for it, the sense of requirement for it, is present, and that as the amount of it insidiously increases, so does the desire. It is altogether a mistake to imagine that the addition of alcohol to water counteracts the effects of organic impurities, and to habitually work, as some people do, upon stimulants of this kind, is the 'height of folly.' The physical machinery gets impaired, and if one may judge by the experience of many, the inevitable consequences are really to be dreaded. If, in mid-summer, instead of flying to alcohol, which increases the exhaustion of the pneumogastric and great sympathetic nerves, which preside over the digestive, blood-forming, and assimilative functions, everybody voluntarily rested during the hottest hours of the day, when the thermometer is at what Tom Hood termed 'a good old age,' and kept in the shade, as most animals instinctively do, it would be more rational, and therefore better. Some sensible old colonists accustom themselves to 'a quiet nap' at high noon in a cool and darkened room, and doubtless feel the better for it, though it is a bad habit. What the system really most requires is rest. Exposure to heat and prolonged physical exertion raises the

temperature of the body. Of course, business cannot stand altogether still, even with the glass at 80° or 90° Fahr. in the shade; but to do more than a day's work, mental or physical, in the day *habitually*, as many colonists in the hot pursuit of wealth do, causes extra fatigue of the body, and produces a degree of nervous exhaustion from which the system cannot recover in the night. This is apt to lead to the use of fermented liquors to stimulate the jaded nerves—people try, to use a familiar phrase, to 'keep their spirits up by pouring spirits down,' and with just the opposite result. To impart a flip to the over-wrought system some colonists are likewise in the habit of taking medicated spirituous liquors early in the morning on an empty stomach. Nothing can, of course, be more suicidal. In the evening, too, when the body is jaded and fagged, perhaps, after an extra hard day's work, it is equally foolish to have recourse to artificial stimulants. It should be remembered that when the temptation to imbibe is strongest the individual is weakest—the power of resistance least. A thin slice of lemon, which contains both peel and pulp, in a cup of (unbewitched) tea—warm is preferable to cold—with some buttered toast, is much more palatable and better in every way. Without wishing to enter into discussion of the great temperance question one way or another, the writer would observe that while the distinction between moderation and excess is not always adequately recognised, abuse is no valid argument against reasonable use. It does not follow that, because alcohol is a poison, everything that contains the least percentage of alcohol must of necessity be harmful to everyone under any circumstances, hence the folly of drawing a 'hard and fast line. The best things are liable to the worst abuse, just as the finest mechanism is most easily marred.

The writer fears that in devoting such an unusual amount of space to this subject there is some danger not only of its becoming 'a weariness to the flesh,' but of other sections being considerably abridged, and will therefore conclude by mentioning that those persons who are not *over-solicitous* about the preservation of their health, and whose circumstances permit, should, if possible, take a trip at least every five or six years or so to the Free State or Transvaal, situated on the elevated plateau beyond the Drakensberg mountain range, or to particular parts of the Cape Colony, and spend a winter in one or other of those countries. Many colonists, now that the ocean passage is performed so quickly and comfortably, turn their faces towards

the mother country, which is always spoken of as 'home,' and for which, though their feeling of attachment may have been weakened by lapse of time, they still find a warm corner in their hearts—leaving at the close of the Natal winter. In that case it is just as well to defer returning to the colony until the end of the Natal summer of the next or following year. This advice need not, of course, be urged upon those colonists who are 'coining money,' even though a complete *breakdown* of the whole organic structure may result from its neglect. Others, unfortunately, who have the inclination have not always got the means to change their place of residence at pleasure.

CHAPTER VI.

EXECUTIVE AND JUDICIAL GOVERNMENTS.—INSTITUTIONS.

Government Officials and their respective Salaries—Judicial—Colonial Institutions—Markets—Currency—Weights and Measures—Railways and Railway Prospects—Inland Transport Service—Freight—Passenger Conveyance—Inland and Foreign Postage—Savings Bank Department.

THE Government is administered by a Governor, aided by an Executive Council (consisting of six official and two elective members) and a Legislative Council (composed of five official and fifteen elective members).¹ The following are the chief officials in the colonial service:—

	Salaries. £
Governor and Commander-in-Chief, Sir H. E. Bulwer, K.C.M.G.	4,000
Colonial Secretary, Hon. Lieut.-Col. C. B. H. Mitchell, R.M., C.M.G.	1,000
Acting-Secretary for Native Affairs, Hon. J. W. Shepstone	800
Colonial Treasurer, Hon. J. T. Polkinghorne	700
Chief Justice, Sir Henry Connor, Knight, LL.D.	1,200
Attorney-General, Hon. M. H. Galloway	800
Judge Native High Court (acting), Mr. Asshe S. Windham	800
Colonial Engineer, Hon. Capt. A. H. Hime, R.E.	1,000
Emigration Agent for Natal, Mr. Walter Peace	350
Protector of Immigrants, Major Shapland Graves	600
Collector of Customs, Mr. Geo. Rutherford	700
Postmaster-General, Mr. A. H. W. Moodie	400
Surveyor-General, Mr. P. C. Sutherland, M.D.	600
Registrar-General, Mr. G. Lamond	425
General Manager Government Railways, Mr. David Hunter	1,000

That the Executive do not hold sinecure or merely ornamental positions is shown by the amount of practical measures which they enacted during the year 1880. Thirty-five laws were passed,

¹ The elective members retain their seats for four years from date of election, unless the Council is sooner dissolved by the Governor. There are eight electoral districts. The possession of property to the value of 50*l.*, or rental of property to an annual value of 10*l.* entitles a man to a vote. Aliens are, of course, disqualified. All laws passed by the Colonial Legislature have subsequently to receive the confirmation of Her Majesty the Queen, or the Queen's representative in Natal, and are, as a matter of course, subject to disallowance.

the most notable being as under: Natives when they appear in certain specified towns or villages in the colony shall be clothed from neck to knee. Laws for the management and working of railways. The appointment of a Harbour Board and investing it with power over the port. An Act to provide for taking the census during the year 1881. The authorising the raising a loan of 1,200,000*l.* for railway construction, of 200,000*l.* for public works, and of 250,000*l.* for payment to the Imperial Government on account of the Zulu war expenses.

It will be seen from the foregoing, therefore, that there is no lack of public spirit among the legislators or their electors, the colonists.

JUDICIAL.

The Supreme Court of Judicature consists of a Chief Justice and two Puisne Judges, who are appointed by the Crown. The Circuit Courts, presided over either by the Chief Justice or one of the Puisne Judges, are held quarterly; and in each of the electoral divisions of the colony there is a salaried magistrate, who exercises a limited jurisdiction. There are also several Justices of the Peace. In the capital there is a Native High Court. The Attorney-General acts as Public Prosecutor. Some of the advocates of the Supreme Court have passed 'the Bar' examinations in England, while others have not. There are, however, no distinctions between the two branches of the legal profession, as there is in England. The same practitioner is qualified, and can act as attorney, solicitor, counsellor, and barrister. The law in force is Roman-Dutch, reference being made, however, to English precedents. The works of not only Coke and Blackstone, but of the most recent English and American writers, are familiarly cited in the Courts. As the colonial law differs in some important respects from that of England, it will be advisable for emigrants shortly after their arrival in the colony to consult a practising member of the legal profession as to the manner in which marital and property rights will be affected. In the transference of land, and in the drawing up of testamentary documents, the emigrant should procure the aid of an experienced and respectable solicitor. Many persons are tempted for the sake of questionable economy to employ gentlemen who are not properly qualified, but this is a mistaken economy. The expense of having one's title-deeds investigated by a solicitor when the conveyance is being made may be evaded, but the probability is that at some future date some flaw will be detected, by reason of

which an expenditure of treble the amount originally saved would be necessitated; and that is, of course, assuming the property not to be eventually lost to the purchaser. This remark applies with equal force to testamentary dispositions, whether of personal or immovable property. At the same time, the introduction of a law to facilitate the acquisition of real property, and lessen the cost incidental thereto, is greatly needed. All title deeds and mortgage bonds should be registered at the office of the Registrar of Deeds and Debts in Maritzburg. In Natal, as in the mother country, the cheapest lawyer is generally the most expensive in the long run.

COLONIAL INSTITUTIONS.

Besides the municipal corporations of Durban and Maritzburg, and the different police forces and volunteer corps, there are banks, insurance offices, building and investment societies, &c. There are also Freemasons' lodges, Oddfellows' and Foresters' societies, Young Men's Christian associations, Good Templars' lodges, hospitals, benevolent societies, literary and scientific societies, and other institutions of a similar character.

LEGAL PUBLIC HOLIDAYS.

New Year's Day, Good Friday, Easter Monday, Whit Monday, Her Majesty's Birthday, Michaelmas Day, All Saints' Day, Christmas Day, or any other day appointed by proclamation of the Governor as a solemn fast or thanksgiving day. According to law, all bills and promissory notes falling due on the above days shall become due and payable the following day; or, should the latter be a Sunday, on the next Monday. Should, however, New Year's Day, Her Majesty's Birthday, Michaelmas Day, All Saints' Day, or Christmas Day in any year fall on a Sunday, the Monday following is the public holiday, and the next Tuesday the day when the bills and promissory notes become payable.

TIME.

Local time at Durban is notified by the ringing of a bell at the Police Station each morning at nine o'clock of mean time. In the City it is regulated by the firing of a gun at Fort Napier, at eight o'clock of mean time each morning.

BOROUGH MARKETS.

In Durban and the City, at nine o'clock each morning, the respective market-masters sell by auction farm produce, &c.

The market regulations should in all cases be strictly complied with.

CURRENCY.

The circulating medium is English coinage, supplemented by local bank notes. Indian rupees are not accepted as current coinage.

BIRTHS, MARRIAGES, AND DEATHS.

Information of births and deaths must be given within thirty days to the resident magistrate or district registrar—in the case of a birth, by the parent, or some person acting on behalf of the parent; in the case of a death, by the occupier of the house or person present at the death. Every minister and marriage officer must transmit immediately to the Hon. the Colonial Secretary and to the Registrar-General a certified marriage return. Any unnatural death should be immediately reported to the resident magistrate, clerk of the peace, district surgeon of the county, or field-cornet of the ward. Every birth, marriage, and death should be promptly reported to the proper officer, so that due registration be secured. Any neglect not only subjects the representatives of the family to fine, but may eventually lead to dispute regarding title to and transference of property.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

The imperial standard measures are legalised in the colony; but the Boer inhabitants in disposing of their produce still adhere to the Dutch standard formerly used in the colony, that standard representing $91\frac{80}{100}$, or practically 92 lbs. Dutch, to 100 lbs. English, or avoirdupois. A schepel is $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches square by $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches deep. Four schepels are equal to one muid, or three imperial bushels. Ten muids are equal to one load. The weight of a muid of barley is 104 lbs.; oats, 105 lbs.; wheat, beans, peas, and mealies (Indian corn, or maize), 180 lbs.

RAILWAYS.

Railway construction was commenced on a small scale in the colony twenty years ago, when two miles were laid by private enterprise from the Point to Durban, and later on, $3\frac{1}{4}$ miles to the Umgeni river. The total length of lines in actual operation at the present time, of which the Government has exclusive control, is not more than about 99 miles. But, excepting $5\frac{1}{4}$ miles, this length has been completed within the past four years, at an estimated average cost, including

rolling stock, of 12,500*l.* per mile. This sum, it may be observed, considerably exceeds the anticipated cost—namely, 9,600*l.* per mile. Messrs. Nythes and Jackson were the contractors. The sections opened for traffic are :—

Point to Durban	2 miles
Durban to Verulam, <i>North Coast Line</i>	19½
Durban to Pietermaritzburg, <i>Main Line</i>	70½
Isipingo, from junction with <i>Main Line, South Coast Line</i>	7½

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These lines ought, of course, to have been located with a view to obtaining, primarily, the lightest possible gradients and the easiest curvature, but as to whether these ends have been secured public opinion is divided.¹ Certainly, the most picturesque route has not been chosen, but this will not be a matter of regret to pedestrians.

The most important works on the sections opened are the Umgeni, Umhlathuzani, Umlass, and Inchanga viaducts, respectively 1,040, 567, 1,160, and 440 feet in length. These, as well as some others, are constructed on cast-iron screw-piles with lattice girders, and the total gross tonnage of iron-work is, therefore, considerable.² On the North Coast Line there are three bridges, respectively 440, 240, and 160 feet in length. The gauge is 3 feet 6 inches, and the weight of rails—not steel—40 lbs. Further works are in contemplation, but should they not be undertaken, it is, at all events, to be hoped that the trunk lines will be pushed forward with vigour to Ladysmith and Newcastle.³ The importance of having railway communication with the interior ought not to be overlooked. By forming a junction at Ladysmith, an extension could be made northward to the base of the Quathlamba mountain, where it could be united with a Free State line. To such an extension there can be no well-grounded objection. It is true that similar so-called ‘repro-

¹ In his official report, dated October 27, 1879, the Resident Engineer, Mr. W. Ridley, says: ‘There is probably no other railway in existence which is so unhappily circumstanced . . . as the Natal Government railways, where the steep gradients and sharp curves bear so great a proportion to the total length of lines.’ Curves of 300 feet radius are not at all uncommon.

² The enormous tonnage of iron, wood, &c., used in the construction of the Natal railways has all had to be imported.

³ Since the above was written the tender of Mr. James Perry for the construction of the railway extension from Maritzburg to Ladysmith has been accepted by the Legislative Council, the contract price for construction being 638,334*l.* It is to be 116 miles in length, to be completed within fifty-four months.

ductive' undertakings have, in the Cape Colony and elsewhere, proved 'unproductive,' or rather productive of nothing but debt. But what of that? In the case of Natal it signifies absolutely nothing. The question that arises is, Are there any good reasons why the extension of the colony's trunk lines should be delayed? The reply to that question really depends upon the reply to another, Is the colony to be allowed to decay? If this question is answered in the affirmative, then the reply to the first query is—there are; if, however, a negative answer be given, the reply to be made is—virtually none; at least, not if the experience of other countries goes to prove anything. Of course, the suggested extension of these lines cannot reasonably be expected to pay the interest and sinking fund on the capital expenditure, or even working expenses, immediately. But, equally of course, it may be confidently asserted that railway construction will eventually not only be self-supporting, but will return handsome dividends. But all depends upon the management, and in the absence of well-authenticated data as to the cost of working the existing lines—although present traffic receipts would not in themselves be a trustworthy basis of calculation—it is obviously impossible to even approximately judge what the ultimate financial result would be. But, as an instance in point, it may be mentioned that the New Zealand railways already yield a dividend of 10 per cent. on capital, equal to a profit upon their cost of construction of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Moreover, it is universally admitted that wherever railways are constructed in new countries the population rapidly increases, the (ratable) value of land rises, the Customs' revenue is largely augmented, the diversion of legitimate trade is prevented, and the whole resources of a country quickly developed, especially in mineral productions. In short, the advantages of railway facilities in a new country are obvious to every sane person, and it is hoped they will be utilised to their fullest extent in Natal. There need be no apprehension of a too rapid development. The misgiving of many colonists and others is generated, mainly, by a suspicion that recent changes are too good to be enduring. It is scarcely necessary to say that such timorous folk are not likely to have much faith in the accomplishment of the great South African enterprise of the future, namely, a railway from the Indian Ocean to the Atlantic. The development of agricultural enterprise in North America is entirely due to the railways which bring the produce to the coast, and what applies to America is equally true of South Africa.

The Natal Government railway time-tables for the different lines are usually published in the local papers.

The correctness of the writer's views are confirmed strongly by the Consular Report for 1880, which he has before alluded to, and the summary of railway enterprise and prospects, drawn up by Col. Mitchell, is so much to the purpose that the writer need not apologise for quoting it *in extenso* :—

The main line between Durban and Pietermaritzburg was opened for passenger traffic only on December 1, 1880, and for general traffic on March 1, 1881, and the general returns of receipts and expenditure since the latter date justify a belief that the lines as now existing can be worked at a moderate profit, perhaps amounting to the interest paid on the loan for their construction. In the year under report (1880), however, the general manager shows a net profit of only 6,705*l.* This is accounted for by the disadvantages attending the working of only part of a line with a general staff adapted to the working of the whole line: there is a considerable discrepancy between the general manager's figures as shown in his report and those of the treasurer's return of revenue, which is accounted for by the former showing all sources of revenue while the latter only takes account of amounts actually received in the treasury.

That there have been errors made in the construction and equipment of the lines may be admitted, but those errors are capable of and are in fact being retrieved, and on the whole there is I think every reason to be satisfied with the construction of the railway so far.

The extension of the present main line from Pietermaritzburg to the Drakensberg at Van Reenen's Pass is a matter of urgent and vital importance to a colony which depends for a considerable portion of its prosperity on the commerce of the interior. Provision has been made in the Acts 35 of 1880 and 1 of 1881 for the raising of a loan and the making of a contract for the construction of the railway to Ladysmith, from which to the Drakensberg is but some twenty-five miles. When this extension has been completed all the trade of the upper portion of the Free State will naturally go to Natal, but without this extension the Cape lines will undoubtedly draw off the whole of this and a considerable portion of the Transvaal trade.

INLAND TRANSPORT SERVICE.

In addition to the railways that are now working in different directions, a service of springless waggons and carts, carrying from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ tons weight, are employed. These cumbrous vehicles are drawn by from three to eight pairs of oxen, and accomplish, on an average, a distance of about twenty miles a day. To urge these ox-teams forward, the native or European 'driver' wields a whip of unmistakable punishing power, made by attaching a thong of sea-cow hide, tipped with *voerslaag*, to the tapering end of a 15-foot bamboo. When an overloaded waggon happens to 'stick fast' in a mud-hole—a very common occurrence—or the ox-team becomes unmanageable, the afore-

said 'driver' manipulates this formidable whip with astonishing dexterity, and it is only too true that, in many instances, the beasts are unmercifully flayed. When on an easy road, the long whip is dispensed with, and a short one (*achter sjambok*), likewise made of hippopotamus hide, is used for the hindmost brace of oxen. The native who guides the front pair of oxen, by means of a *reim*, or strip of hide, which is secured to their horns, is called a *fore-longer* (i.e. leader). Horses, donkeys, mules, &c., are also employed as draught animals throughout the colony, and are found to answer admirably. As a rule, colonists are very scrupulous to brand their cattle, horses, sheep, &c., with their initials, or some distinctive device, but strange to say, until quite recently these brands were unregistered. This, of course, caused considerable inconvenience to every one; Messrs. P. Davis & Sons supplied this omission by the publication of a brand directory in their 'Almanack, Directory, and Register,' for 1881, the publication being analogous to the *Trades Mark Registration Gazette*. Land transport for passenger's goods is also carried on by omnibuses. Post-carts and private conveyances—in fact, vehicles of all sorts are used, from the ponderous bullock waggon to the most diminutive Yankee buggy or 'notion.' From Durban to Maritzburg there is Welch's old-established line of passenger omnibuses, and a post-cart service, the former accomplishing the journey in one day, and the latter in half a day. Between Durban and the Point terminus of the Government railway there is a tramway. For times of starting, fares, &c., inquiry should, of course, be made at the proprietor's offices.

The greater part of the colony has been rendered accessible by fairly good trunk roads, from which other roads branch off in various directions. The following were the rates of transport in April 1881:—

Durban to Maritzburg	3s. per cwt.
" Ladysmith	9s. "
" Harrismith	11s. "
" Newcastle	11s. "
" Bethlehem	13s. "
" Winburg	16s. "
" Cronstad	16s. "
" Potchefstroom	20s. "
" Pretoria	22s. "
Botha's to Maritzburg	2s. "
Durban to Kokstad	11s. "

PASSENGER CONVEYANCES.

It is not lawful for any person to keep, or use, or employ, or be concerned in any way whatsoever in the keeping, using, or employing of any conveyance for the carrying for hire of passengers along the main roads of this colony, unless such conveyance is licensed under the authority of Law No. 20, 1875, by the resident magistrate of the district through which the conveyance passes. The charge for such a license is 1*l.* per annum. The license must specify the greatest number of passengers allowed to be carried in such conveyance, and there must be inscribed on both sides of the vehicle, the proprietor's name, the names of the places between which the conveyance travels, and the number of passengers licensed to be carried. The driver is liable to punishment for misconduct or carelessness, for not taking due care of any luggage, for demanding or receiving more than the legal fare; or for assaulting, or using abusive or insulting language to any passenger; and he is not allowed to permit any passenger or any person other than himself to drive. The law does not apply to any conveyance specially hired by any private person or persons for a particular journey, or for the day, or hour.

POSTAL AND TELEGRAPHIC REGULATIONS.

The increase of business in the Postal and Telegraphic Compartments proves the correctness of the conclusion that the colony's prosperity is steadily advancing year by year. There is, at least, a regular weekly mail from Europe,¹ and, in the colony, a well-considered system of native runners, in conjunction with a Government post-cart service, is in fair working order. In view of the gradual development of trade, it would appear, however, that the postal facilities are not at all commensurate with the colony's present requirements.² The writer ventures to think that it would be an improvement on existing arrangements were distinct and separate receptacles provided for each county in the

¹ Of late years the postal contracts have been submitted to fair competition, and it would be impossible to speak too highly of the punctuality with which the ocean mail service has been carried on. Under the existing arrangement, the mail-ship owners receive the whole of the earnings by the conveyance of letters, &c., and premiums in addition for speed.

² That the postal authorities, however, are making efforts to extend the efficiency of the postal service is shown by the fact that during the year 1880 an increase of 2,932*l.* was incurred in that branch of public service over the previous year.

colony, with the addition of one for each village. In like manner separate compartments could be provided for the Free State, Transvaal, Griqualand, and other neighbouring countries, besides others for 'sea-borne' letters, papers, &c. Were the private boxes, by means of a key, accessible to subscribers from the lobby or corridor of the building it would be a convenience. With such arrangements, both delivery and despatch of mails would be greatly facilitated, and the saving of money in this department would of necessity be considerable. It would also be a convenience to the public were iron pillar-boxes erected in different parts of the town. The introduction of post-cards and postal newspaper wrappers would likewise be a step in the right direction. A house-to-house delivery is a boon not yet conceded to 'Messrs. the Public.' At present it is difficult, with a due regard to politeness, to squeeze oneself through the mixed crowd of 'anxious inquirers' who besiege the post-office windows at the time appointed for delivery of English mails, and the effluvia from the perspiring natives is distinctly perceptible.

As particulars of the postal arrangements are usually published in the local newspapers, the reader is referred to them. A table of rates of postage is, however, given below.

TABLE OF RATES OF POSTAGE.

From Natal to the United Kingdom, &c., viâ Cape of Good Hope.

Letters, 6d. per each $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz., or fraction thereof, and so on, increasing 6d. for every additional $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz.; newspapers, 1d. each, not exceeding 4-oz.; books, patterns, and samples, not exceeding 1-oz. 1d., 1-oz. to 2-oz. 2d., 2-oz. to 4-oz. 3d.; every additional 4-oz. 3d.; registration fee, 4d.

From Natal to the United Kingdom, &c., viâ Zanzibar, Aden, Egypt, &c.

Letters, 8d. per each $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz., or fraction thereof; newspapers 3d. each, not exceeding 4-oz.; books, patterns, and samples, not exceeding 4-oz. 3d., every additional 4-oz. 3d.; registration fee 4d.

From Natal to Cape Colony, Orange Free State, South African Republic, and Diamond Fields.

Letters, 6d. per each $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz., or fraction thereof; newspapers, 1d. each; books, patterns, and samples, not exceeding 4-oz., 3d.; 4-oz. to 8-oz. 6d.; 8-oz. to 1 lb. 1s.; every additional 8-oz. 6d.; registration fee, 6d.

Local Letters, Newspapers, Private Boxes, Money Orders, &c.

Local letters are 1d. per $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz., or fraction thereof prepaid. *All unpaid, or insufficiently paid letters are chargeable with double the deficient postage on delivery.* All newspapers published in the colony, and all English and foreign newspapers, are transmitted and delivered free of postage. Private

letter-boxes are provided, the charge being 5s. per quarter, payable in advance. There are between fifty and sixty post-offices in the colony. Local money-orders are issued in Pietermaritzburg, Durban, and Ladysmith. Rates—1l. and under 3d., 2l. or under 6d., 3l. or under 9d., 5l. or under 1s., 10l. or under 1s. 6d., 15l. or under 2s., 25l. or under 2s. 6d. Apply *at least one hour before the time of closing the mail.*

Money orders are issued at Durban and Pietermaritzburg on any money-order office in the United Kingdom up to the sum of 10l. sterling. Rates—2l. or under 9d., 5l. or under 2s. 6d., 10l. or under 3s. Money orders on the Cape Colony and St. Helena are subject to the same rates and regulations as those on the United Kingdom. No orders will be granted for any larger amount than 10l., nor for any fractional part of a penny. Apply *at least twenty-four hours before the time of closing the mail.*

LOCAL BOOK AND SAMPLE POST.

Postage must be prepaid. Rates—2-oz. or under 1d., 4-oz. or under 2d., 8-oz. or under 4d., 12-oz. or under 6d., 16-oz. or under 8d., and so on.

From Natal to Tasmania, New Zealand, or South Australia.

Letters, 9d. per each $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz.; newspapers not exceeding 4-oz., 2d. each; *must be prepaid.*

From Natal to United States of America.

Letters, 7 $\frac{1}{2}$ d. per each $\frac{1}{2}$ -oz.; newspapers, 2d. each. Postage is not chargeable upon fully prepaid letters received from any other countries.

The post offices in Durban and Pietermaritzburg are open for the delivery of letters, &c., every morning at eight o'clock. A quarter of an hour is allowed for 'late letters,' upon which there is a charge of 6d., to be affixed in stamps, in addition to the postage. Letters, packets, &c., must be registered at least half an hour before the time of closing the mail by which they are to be forwarded. The rate in the colony is 6d., and to England 4d., in all cases to be affixed in stamps. The registration of all letters containing coin is compulsory, and all such letters, if not registered, are charged double registration fee on delivery. All letters must be fully prepaid, over postage and fee before they can be registered. The arrival and delivery to the public of sea-borne mails is announced both in Durban and Pietermaritzburg by the firing of either one or two guns. Local mails are despatched and delivered daily, Sundays excepted.

The various districts of the colony are connected by a telegraphic system, which is in the hands of the Government, and which is being continually extended. The writer cannot, however, give the exact number of miles in operation. Telegraphic communication has likewise been established with all the principal towns in the Cape Colony, the Orange Free State, South

African Republic, &c. The colony is connected by a submarine telegraph, belonging to the Eastern Telegraph Company, to England, *viâ* Aden. The subsidy payable by the Government is 5,000*l.* per annum. To the public, messages by the ocean cables are charged 8*s.* 9*d.* per word from Durban to London. The charge within the colony, which must be prepaid, is 1*s.* for ten words, including addresses, and for every extra five words 6*d.*—that is, double the press rate.

GOVERNMENT SAVINGS BANK DEPARTMENT.

Deposits are received at the Colonial Treasury, and at resident magistrates' offices in country districts, of not less than 5*s.* each, nor more than 10*l.* at any one time. They are receivable from any second person willing to act as a trustee for another, disabled by minority, or by lunacy, and such trustee's receipt is a sufficient discharge for sums withdrawn.

Each depositor should take care to get a pass-book, and see that every deposit is entered therein at the time of its being made, and should also notice that the interest upon the sums deposited are duly entered. Deposits may be withdrawn upon 10 days' notice being given, if the sum to be withdrawn does not exceed 5*l.*; upon 20 days' notice any sum not exceeding 20*l.* can be withdrawn; upon 30 days' notice any sum not exceeding 50*l.* can be taken out; and upon 40 days' notice any larger sum than 50*l.* may be withdrawn. His Excellency the Governor, however, has the power to dispense with any notice at all.

Interest is allowed at the rate of 4 *per centum per annum*, but is not due on any sum under 1*l.* It begins from the first day of the calendar month following that in which the deposit was made, but is not allowed on any sum over 100*l.*, nor is any allowed on a sum deposited for a less period than four months. Interest ceases to be due upon any sum of which notice of withdrawal has been given, and from the date when such notice was intimated at the Savings Bank.

All interest is calculated up to December 31 of each year upon sums then standing to persons' credit at the bank.

CHAPTER VII.

THE PRESS AND LITERATURE.

Periodical Press—European Journals—List of Books Published on the Cape—Chase's and Mann's Works—The Author's Book—Places of Worship—Missionary Stations—Educational Progress and Development—Schools and Educational Establishments.

BESIDES the *Government Gazette* there are, at least, four newspapers published in the colony: the *Witness* and the *Times* in the City; the *Mercury* and the *Advertiser* in Durban.

The Natal journals are conducted with vigour and ability, whilst those published in Durban compare favourably with many influential provincial daily papers in the mother country. The *Mercury* stands in the very front rank of the South African publicists. For many of the particulars given in these pages the writer is glad to acknowledge his indebtedness to that journal, which has been established about twenty-nine years. It is published under the joint editorship of the sole proprietors, Messrs. John Robinson and Richard Vanse—two well-known colonists.

The *Advertiser* is also an independent and intelligent exponent of colonial public opinion. It is under the editorship of Mr. J. W. Phelan, and Messrs. P. Davis & Sons are the proprietors. Excellent weekly summaries are issued, which contain colonial and foreign news to the latest date. Messrs. P. Davis & Sons' 'Almanack, Directory, and Register,' has been published regularly since 1863 up to the present time. It is ably edited by Mr. R. J. Finnemore, and contains, in a condensed form, a mass of valuable statistical information, which the writer of this work has largely availed himself of. Every copy is, in fact, a miniature library. In addition to the above, there are other interesting periodical publications, some of which are in the native language.

In addition to those issued in the colonies, the journals published in England for the colonists are the *African Times*, the *South African Mail*, the *Colonies and India*, *European Mail*, *Home and Colonial Mail*.

Of the making of many books on South Africa, the Cape, and Natal, there has been no end. Most of the works issued are now

out of print, and some of them are obviously of a superficial character. When an eminent author makes two bulky volumes of observations as the result of a flying visit, it is evident that some of his observations could scarcely be otherwise than superficial. Works of this kind serve to pass away the time only. It is but fair, however, to acknowledge the work and services of those who have gone before, and, for the benefit of students of Cape history, the writer annexes a list of the works that have been published, premising only that Chase's 'Natal' is one of the most complete compendiums of reliable information extant at the time it was written. The list does not pretend to be complete, but for an ordinary reader it will be enough :—

ARROWSMITH, J., *Cape of Good Hope, including Natal*.—ATCHERLEY, R. J., *A Trip to Boerland, Natal, &c.*—AYLMER, MRS. F., *Bush Life in Zululand*.—AYLWARD, *The Transvaal of To-Day*.—BAYNES, THOS., *Explorations in South-West Africa; The Gold Regions of South-East Africa*.—BOYLE, *To the Cape for Diamonds*.—CHAMBERS, *Emigrant's Manual*.—CHAPMAN, *Travels*.—CHASE, *Natal*.—CLOET, *Lectures*.—COLENSO, FRANCES E., *History of the Zulu War*.—COLENSO, J. W., *Ten Weeks in Natal; Zulu-English Dictionary; Elementary Grammar of Zulu-Kafir Language*.—CUMMING, R. GORDON, *Travels, Hunting Trophies and Arms, in 1852*.—CUNYNGHAME, COL., *My Command in South Africa*.—DANIEL, S., *Sketches representing the Native Tribes of South Africa*.—DAVIS, *The Cape and its People*.—DOUGLAS, ARTHUR, *Ostrich Farming in South Africa*.—DRAYSON, COL. A. W., *Sporting Scenes in South Africa; Among the Zulus*.—EDEN, C. H., *Ula, in Veldt and Laager*.—FARBER, J. A., *Zululand and the Zulus*.—FROUDE, T. A., *Two Lectures on South Africa*.—GARDINER, CAPT. A., F.R.S., *Narrative of a Journey to the Zulu Country*.—HALL, HENRY, *Manual of South African Geography*.—HAMILTON, C. H., *Sketches of Life and Sport in Africa*.—HARRIS, SIR W. C., *Narrative of an Expedition in Southern Africa; The Wild Sports of South Africa, 1839*.—HOLDEN, *History of the Colony of Natal; The Past and Future of the Kafir Race*.—HOLUB, DR., *Seven Years in South Africa*.—ISAACS, N., *Travels and Adventures in Eastern Africa*.—KJN, CORNELIUS, *Cetshwayo's Dutchman*.—KEAPP, J. L., *Travels and Researches in Eastern Africa*.—LINDLEY, CAPT AUGUSTE, *After Ophir; Adamantia, all about the South African Diamond Fields*.—LIVINGSTONE, DAVID, *Narrative of an Expedition to the Zambesi; Popular Account of Missionary Travels*.—LUCAS, *Camp Life and Sport in South Africa; Zulus at the British Frontier*.—MANN, R. J., *The Colony of Natal, an Account of the Characteristics and Capabilities of the Colony, 1860*.—MOFFATT, ROBT., *Missionary Labours and Scenes in Southern Africa*.—MONTAGUE, W. E., *Campaigning in South Africa*.—NAPIER, LIEUT.-COL. E., *Excursion in Southern Africa, 1849*.—NEAVES, DAS., *Hunting Expedition to the Transvaal*.—NEWMAN, C. L. NORRIS, *In Zululand with the British, 1879*.—NOBLE, JOHN, *South Africa, Past and Present*.—NOBURY, H. F., *The Naval Brigade in South Africa*.—OWEN, CAPT. W. S., R.N., *Expedition to Explore the Shores of South Africa*.—PARR, CAPT. H. H., *Sketch of the Kafir and Zulu War*.—PATTON, C. A., *The Diamond Diggings, a Practical Account*.—PRINGLE, T., *Narrative of a Residence in South Africa, 1876*.—ROBERTSON, J., *On Northern Coastlands; Notes on Natal*.

—ROCHE, *On Trek in the Transvaal*.—SHUTER, REV. J., *Kafirs of Natal and Zululand*.—SOMERSET, MRS. COL., *Adventures of*.—SILVER, S. W., *Guide to South African Diamond Fields; Handbook to South Africa*.—STATHAM, F. R., *Blacks, Boers, and British*.—STREETFELD, F. N., *Campaign in Kafirland*.—THEALD, G. H., *Compendium of South African History and Geography*.—THOSEBY, WM., *Sketches of Port Natal*.—TOMASSON, W. H., *With the Irregulars in the Transvaal*.—WARD, MRS. H., *The Cape and the Kafirs*.—WILMOTT AND CHASE, *History of the Colony of Cape of Good Hope*.

Of the foregoing works the majority are now out of print, and those that are still extant are most beyond the reach of the public at large. The list is valuable as showing the interest that has been taken in the colony during the past seventy years, and as a record of the literary pioneers who have aided by their pen in making it known.

In addition to the foregoing long list the present volume must be added. The author does not seek to enter into competition with the many literary lions whose names appear above. He does claim, however, that his observations are the outcome of many years' life experience of Natal, and knowing the sort of information that newly-arrived emigrants mostly require, he has aimed to supply that want.

He has freely availed himself of whatever appeared most suitable to his purpose in previous authors. He hopes that this general acknowledgment will be accepted as sufficient; but he must express his special obligation to the 'Natal Almanack' of Messrs. P. Davis & Son, a work of deservedly high repute. And, for his own satisfaction, he cannot refrain from acknowledging his indebtedness to the work of Dr. Mann, which has done more perhaps than any other work to overcome the deep-seated insular prejudices against emigration to Natal. But it is no disparagement of Dr. Mann's treatise, which is full of information regarding the physical and social aspects of the colony, to say that on several important matters it is many years out of date. In some respects there is necessarily much in common between the present volume and the one referred to; but, without instituting a comparison, it may be said that the point of view, the mode of discussion, and the choice of topics differ much in the two productions. More recently Mr. H. Brooks' 'Natal,' an excellent illustrated work edited by Mr. Mann, has been published, but the price—one guinea—is almost prohibitive. Dr. Mann also issued an 'Emigrant's Guide to Natal,' in 1867, at 2s., which gave a condensed account of the colony and its capabilities. The author of this work can also recommend a perusal of Mr. J. Robinson's carefully compiled 'Notes on Natal,' which will add considerably to the reader's

knowledge. It is hoped that the present work will, notwithstanding the imperfections inherent to hastiness of preparation, attain a fair measure of success in realising the purpose which is its primary end and aim—namely, the dissemination of recent and thoroughly reliable information among the class to whom it will be most useful. If it induces some intending emigrants to turn their attention to a colony which has not hitherto received that attention to which it is entitled, or if the perusal of its pages shall be the means of benefiting any person who, from choice or necessity, may have resolved to plant 'a home' in this 'land of promise,' by causing him or her to think as well as act, the writer will not regret utilising a part of his leisure in its preparation.

He has offered some hints which are likely to be useful to emigrants and others who really care to consider, if not to accept, the instructions given. Even if advice be wrongly given, it comes at least from one who has read much, and thought more, over what he has written, and, as such, it is hoped that this work will not be wholly without value.

PLACES OF WORSHIP.

The progress of the colony is everywhere shown in a pleasing manner by the commensurate increase in the number of religious edifices adapted to the varied requirements of a steadily increasing population. Of course the best of these edifices for the worship of the Deity would sink into absolute insignificance when compared with the magnificent cathedrals of old countries, upon which all the resources of art have been lavished; but, so long as they answer their purpose, what more can be required? Who would expect them to be built on a pretentious scale, or embellished with the wealth of detail which distinguishes the grand old religious edifices of Europe? What people are more concerned to know is whether they are externally attractive and internally comfortable and commodious. This, in the towns, they certainly are. Steeples and peals of bells have not yet, however, been considered necessary adjuncts to colonial sanctuaries. They would none the less be highly appreciated, and will, no doubt, in due time be provided. The leading denominations are the Church of England, the (Anglican) Church of the Province of South Africa, and the Wesleyans. Next after these the Congregationalists, the Presbyterians, and the Roman Catholics are the most influential religious bodies.

The Right Rev. J. W. Colenso, D.D., is Lord Bishop of

Natal (Church of England); the Right Rev. W. K. Macrorie, D.D., is Bishop of Pietermaritzburg (English Church); and the Right Rev. Dr. Jolivet is Roman Catholic Bishop. It would ill become the writer to say with what zeal their prelatical functions are discharged, but it may not be amiss to suggest that the published works of the first-named divine, especially as being the work of one man, are potent factors in influencing and moulding the religious thought of the present time throughout the world. The clergymen and ministers of the various religious persuasions as a rule abstain most judiciously from politics. They are doubtless engrossed in their pastoral duties. As a body they are ever ready to stand 'shoulder to shoulder' for the promotion of any object calculated to minister to the public good, and their only rivalry appears to be as to which can do most to help on the good cause each has at heart. The following are the chief places of worship:—

Point—Church of England, Addington, Church of England.

Durban—St. Paul's Church, St. Cyprian's Church, Roman Catholic Church, Presbyterian Chapel, Wesleyan Chapel, Congregational Chapel, and Baptist Chapel.

Berea—St. Thomas's Church, English Church, Wesleyan and Congregational Chapels.

Sydenham—St. Matthew's and St. John's Churches.

Umgeni—St. Matthias's Church.

Verulam—Church of England, English Church, and Wesleyan Chapel.

Umhlali—Church of England and Wesleyan Chapel.

Isipingo—St. James's Church.

Umzinto—St. Patrick's Church.

Pinetown—Church of England and Wesleyan Chapel.

City—St. Peter's Cathedral, St. Saviour's Cathedral, Roman Catholic Church, Wesleyan Chapel, St. John's Presbyterian Church, Congregational Chapel, and Dutch Reformed Church. Divine services are also conducted in the garrison (Fort Napier).

Estcourt—St. Matthew's Church.

Howick—St. Luke's Church.

Shafton—St. Mark's Church. Divine services are also conducted at St. James's Church, Sea-Cow Lake; Mount Moreland, Blackburn, Stanger, Richmond, Byrnetown, Spring Vale, High Flats, Greytown, Ladysmith, Maoi River, Dundee, Newcastle, and other localities.

In connection with many of the above places of worship there are Sunday as well as week-day schools, and Government subsidies are made in aid of some of them, the religious instruction in such schools being under the control of the various denominations receiving such special aid.

MISSIONARY STATIONS.

In addition to the places of worship already named there are several American, Berlin, Hanoverian, Norwegian, and other missionary stations—probably between thirty and forty, some of which are said to be almost entirely supported by the natives themselves—scattered throughout the colony, where many natives have received both secular and religious education of an elementary character, while some have been taught to do mechanical work. At these stations, or rather respectable parsonages, which generally present a pleasing and interesting aspect, suggestive of anything but temporal discomfort, European ministers officiate, and they are assisted by native evangelists.

It will be seen, therefore, that there is no lack of places of worship for all denominations, and, what is perhaps equally important, the ministers are sincere, earnest, and single-minded in the pursuit of their calling, and all their efforts are directed to the religious welfare of their respective flocks.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS AND DEVELOPMENT.

The educational necessities of the population are not overlooked. As elsewhere stated, a system of public schools adapted to the requirements of the colony was organised by the Government in 1859, and since that date additional school accommodation has been provided to meet the varied wants of a multiplying population. In Maritzburg and in Durban there are schools distinguished as 'Model Primary' and 'High,' in the former of which the elementary branches of knowledge are taught, and in the latter the higher branches of tuition. In the capital there is a Government Collegiate Institution, to which an endowment has been made. In addition to these establishments, there are between fifty and sixty schools distributed through the various counties. This number, however, includes some private, elementary, and other schools. The latter do not, of course, rank with the higher grade of scholastic institutions in the mother country; but, since the appointment of Mr. Robert Russell, the present superintendent inspector of schools, some excellent features have been

introduced, and the standard of tuition is now probably as high as in many large English provincial towns, while that gentleman's name alone is a sufficient guarantee that the work of the teachers is well done, and that whatever tends to promote the comfort and physical well-being of the pupils will be attended to. The children (both sexes) of the most respectable and best educated colonists attend the public schools, which are taught by certificated teachers, and regularly inspected. While the educational facilities are of the most satisfactory kind, the tuition fees are moderate, thus enabling the children of the poor working classes as well as those of the affluent to be efficiently educated. Certificates of proficiency are given, and there are three Government bursaries open for competition to boys of over eleven and under fifteen years of age of the annual value of 40*l.* each, and tenable for three years. All the Government schools are strictly undenominational, and aided schools are subject to Governmental inspection. There is no capitation tax on children, nor is education compulsory. The educational machinery is placed under the control of a council of education, which is presided over by the Colonial Secretary.¹

¹ From the returns for 1880 we learn that the Church of England has two native schools receiving Government aid to the amount of 300*l.*; the Church of South Africa follows next on the list with six schools and 213*l.*; and then comes the American Mission with twenty schools and 879*l.*; the Hanoverian Mission with two schools and 48*l.*; the Wesleyan Mission with thirteen schools and 476*l.*; the Scotch Mission with four schools and 254*l.*; the Berlin Mission with two schools and 75*l.*; the Norwegian Mission with one school and 40*l.*; and two undenominational schools with 15*l.* and 12*l.* respectively; or a total of fifty-two schools and grants-in-aid to the amount of 2,312*l.* In these schools there were being educated in 1880, 3,153 natives, of whom 1,876 were boys and 1,277 girls. The native contributions in aid of the school funds are some of them insignificant; but the Manda Female Training School makes up for deficiency in others, heading the list with 130*l.*, followed by the Training School at Adams with 67*l.*, the Edendale Training School with 49*l.*, the New Leeds Undenominational with 30*l.*, and S. Mark's, Maritzburg, with 20*l.* It is not to be supposed that all these 2,000 or 3,000 native scholars pursue their studies for any length of time, or with very definite object in view. Many of them are aware that education opens but a limited sphere of occupation to them, and that manual labour is at once more practicable and more profitable. They are often satisfied when they can read and write their own language, and this they term 'overcoming the book.' The official Consular Report shows a marked and steady improvement both in attendance and in the raising of the standard. The inspector of the schools for Europeans under Government inspection reports that the attendance during 1880 was 1,755 boys and 1,232 girls, against 1,459 and 1,108 respectively, during the preceding year, and he states that 'he does not know any corner of the colony

where education of some kind is not obtainable.' So far as the State-aided schools are concerned, the Council of Education insist on having duly certificated teachers, and the result of the annual examination is encouraging both as regards the number of competitors and the standard of requirements, the competitors for the years 1878, 1879, 1880, numbering 99, 90, and 176 respectively. The cause of the falling-off in 1879 is of course obvious. The High School teachers are zealous and skilful, and are doing their best in common with the Council of Education and the thinking portion of the community, to bestow upon their children something more than the three R's as their mental stock in trade. The Council aim at establishing at each of the smaller towns or villages of the colony a primary school under Government control, which shall afford boarding accommodation to children who live at too great a distance to attend school daily. Mr. H. R. Janisch regrets that in proportion to the number the education of the natives does not progress in such a satisfactory manner as is the case with other British colonies. There are great difficulties in the way of educating the natives, though in Pietermaritzburg and Durban, where the whites and native children are educated together, the latter equal the whites in intelligence and appear to be on friendly terms with their schoolfellows.

CHAPTER VIII.

DWELLING-HOUSES: WHERE AND HOW TO BUILD.

Site—Lay of Land—Natural Drainage—Style of Building—Local Bye-Laws—Cubic feet of Air—Dwelling-house Assessment—Lightning Conductors.

IN choosing a place of residence, other things being equal, preference will naturally be given to the most efficiently drained neighbourhood. The lay of the land, as well as its elevation, is a matter of vital importance. Whether on the coastlands or on the uplands, in town or country, it is best to select a site where the natural drainage is good, and to avoid those localities having a clayey surface or subsoil, however well drained. Low-lying land and swampy localities are as unhealthy as dry, sandy, or gravelly soils are salubrious. Those valleys over which an opaque mist hangs until dispersed by the beams of the rising sun, are especially unhealthy. In arriving at a decision as to where to build the emigrant's choice will, as a matter of course, have to be determined by what sites are in the market, the general facilities and advantages of the neighbourhood, such as water-supply, churches, schools, &c., and, in some cases, by the qualities of the soil, or the work obtainable. The style of building will necessarily be governed partly by the emigrant's circumstances, and, partly, by the necessities of a sunny sky. For those who can afford it, the employment of a local architect is by all means to be recommended; if he is worth his salt his commission, and probably more, will be saved. In any case, the internal structural arrangements will have to be planned, and the aspect, exposure, and prospect taken into consideration, before attempting to design the exterior, and the design of the building itself should be prepared with a view to possible future requirements,¹ such as improved circumstances of the owner, or the wants of a growing family necessitate subsequent enlargements.

At present, according to Section 70 of the Durban borough bye-laws, 'no building, or additions to existing buildings, shall be commenced in the borough of Durban without the consent,

¹ For obvious reasons, dwelling-houses should, when possible, be built on sloping ground, and have a north or north-east aspect.

in writing, of the Town Council, testified by the Town Surveyor, or other duly appointed officer of the borough, on the plan of the building, that is to say, the plan upon which the said building is to be erected, whether made by an architect or otherwise; and every architect, or builder, or other person who shall authorise, or direct, or commence, or continue any such building or additions without such consent shall be deemed to have contravened this bye-law.'

All plans for town buildings will, of course, need to be so arranged as to avoid creating impediments to street locomotion. For private residences, detached two-storeyed buildings are best. In thickness the inner and outer walls should be, respectively, nine and eighteen inches, at least, and they should be plastered inside and out,¹ the whole exterior being thoroughly well painted as soon as the walls are sufficiently dry. Good-sized and high ceilings are desirable. In the upper apartments—and it is healthiest to sleep in them—there should be at least 1,200 cubic feet of space in each room, that is, the rooms should be ten feet wide, ten high, and twelve long; but, when possible, much larger and loftier apartments are preferable, say, fourteen feet wide, fourteen high, and eighteen long. Competent authorities declare that from ninety to 100 cubic feet of pure air are required for the mere existence of a working man (300 is the minimum prescribed by the Public Health Act of 1875). This fact should be borne in mind. The position of the doors, windows, &c., in relation to each other, ought to be so arranged that the rooms will be well lighted and draughts avoided. All the openings ought to be large, so as to admit of ample ingress and egress of air to every apartment, with facilities for perfect ventilation, so that in each apartment the inner air may be as fresh and pure as the outer. Far more importance should be attached to this than to the mere dimensions of the rooms. One of the most successful modes of ventilating a room is by creating a current of warm air in a flue, into which an opening is made both at top and bottom of the room, while a similar opening is made at the opposite side of the room. As the fresh pure air comes in, at the lower part of the room, it causes the lighter vitiated air to flow out near the ceiling. This is the mode employed in chemical

¹ As an instance of the durability of unplastered brick buildings, in England, which came under the writer's notice, it may be mentioned that in Dunham Park village (Cheshire) there is a cottage with two frontages, which was built in 1752, and although quite unsheltered the walls are thoroughly preserved.

laboratories for removing smells and injurious gases. Of course the size of the openings depends upon circumstances, and has to be regulated from time to time. An opening one foot square is quite large enough for an ordinary sized room. Usually, house-buildings are roofed with tiles, zinc, galvanised iron, or slates. Slate is coolest, and the angle of declivity should be about 45°. The roof of a four-storeyed building may be carried down so as to give a ten or twelve-foot verandah; and to keep the open verandah and the building itself cool, creeping plants should be trained along some trellis-work. For the exclusion of the sun's direct rays, storm-shutters, and blinds projecting at a suitable angle, are needed. In the country, houses are sometimes roofed with thatch—*Tambookie* grass. They are cool in summer, warm in winter, and cost little; but owing to its inflammability no one is allowed to use this cheap material within the borough of Durban. Cellars to outhouses are useful, especially if they are so placed as to be cool all the year round; and, until water-works are begun, large, well-constructed underground cisterns—placed in the shade when possible—will be a boon, but they should be cleaned out from time to time. At present, iron, zinc-lined, and slate tanks are chiefly used, the latter being coolest.

Like everything else in the colony, buildings are, more or less, in a transitional state. Many of the colonial residences—especially those situated on the outskirts of the town and in the country, and built some years back—are not, therefore, distinguished by high structural excellences. For this reason, it is not generally advisable to purchase ready-built houses. Besides, in most cases so many alterations have to be effected in order to adapt them to suit purchasers' requirements, or gratify their tastes, that little of the original structure is allowed to remain, and that not always harmonising with the improvements. As a general rule, by the time they are finished they prove to be exceedingly bad 'specs.' Many of the artisans' cottages at the Bereafoot, and between Durban and the Point, are constructed of wood and galvanised iron, in sections, so as to be susceptible of being taken to pieces. The mortices and tenons of these portable wooden houses should be well-fitted and coated with a mixture of pure fat and blacklead, together with the screws, so that they may be easily taken down at any time. The roofs, of whatever form, should have a good pitch, and the exterior should be well primed, and painted with three or four good coats of paint. To impart stability, obviate damp, and prevent the ravages of white ants, they should stand on well-tarred brick or

stone foundations, sunk a foot or two below the ground, and on this foundation a *double* course of slightly overlapping slates may with advantage be super-imposed. They should be well bedded in Portland cement, and laid so that the joints in the top layer of slates do not occur over the joints in the lower layer. When their future site is within reasonable distance, if the ground is level, these houses can be removed bodily by well-known mechanical means, similar to those used in moving brick structures, and in raising the roofs of buildings when it is thought fit to increase the height of the walls for any purpose.

Most colonists are evidently averse to building uniform rows or terraces of dwelling-houses. Generally, they are detached, one- or two-storeyed buildings, with semi-detached kitchens, the disposition of outhouses being regulated as much by the exigences of space as the choice of the owners. Most buildings are done by contract, and in that case the exact cost of completed structures is, of course, known beforehand. Brick-built houses, if erected during the dry season, are habitable within from four to six months from the date of completion. Usually, however, they are tenanted within a month or two. It is not uncommon for detached dwelling-houses to be environed by gardens, studded with umbrageous trees, which form a natural shelter and give privacy. As elsewhere noted, they likewise exhale oxygen, absorb carbonic acid, and purify the soil.

Many colonists are of opinion that were provision made by law that no town property should be deemed increased for assessment purposes by reason of its buildings, it would be much better for the appearance of the towns; that, were taxation imposed on the increased value of the land only, buildings of a more ornamental character would be erected—such as fancy or taste might dictate—without having, as at present, to pay dearly for this source of æsthetic gratification. At present, although the rates are nominally the same year by year—that is, $2\frac{1}{2}d.$ in the £ on the assessed value of freehold land and buildings, which is probably one-third less than the true value—the annual assessment is greatly augmented by reason of the constantly increasing value of the land itself. Thus, the total assessed value of Durban borough property—town and suburban allotments—was, in 1879, 665,823*l.* In 1880 it rose to 760,876*l.*, making a difference of 95,053*l.*; the rate on the difference in value amounting to over 99*l.* After deducting so much as 25 per cent. from this amount for the value of new buildings, and additions to or alterations in those previously built, an in-

crease of over 741%. is still exhibited. For the reason just given, as well as because of the lesser amount to be paid down at once for leasehold than freehold property; many people are building on corporation and other leasehold property, which will undeniably suffer depreciation in value proportionably to the diminution of the time for which the leases have to run.

Many of the buildings in the colony are provided with lightning-conductors; but these adjuncts are not often placed in the right position, are neither properly secured, nor in sufficient number to a given area. They are seldom, if ever, tested, and never officially inspected. As a rule they are not carried up high enough, and the connection with the ground is imperfect. To ensure constant efficiency they should be made of copper-rope, half an inch or one inch in diameter, and be of one piece throughout. They should be fastened vertically to the roof, and connected with all metallic surfaces; and the earth-connection should be made by two rods—one lying near the surface, but bent away from the building; and the other going down perpendicularly, five or six feet into moist ground. When possible it should be made to terminate in a drain, well, or stream. The points of lightning-conductors should be so arranged that they will serve as conduits for the electricity, from whatever point of the heavens it may come. The old-fashioned insulated iron-rods are everywhere being supplanted by copper or galvanised iron-wire roping, which—besides being simple, inexpensive, and more durable—owing to its conductivity affords greater protection to life and property. It is really surprising what a small number of accidents or fatal casualties occur during the summer thunderstorms. Residential property is not extraordinarily exposed to danger by fire; but in the absence of high-pressure waterworks the insurance companies (local agencies of British offices) charge uniformly high rates.

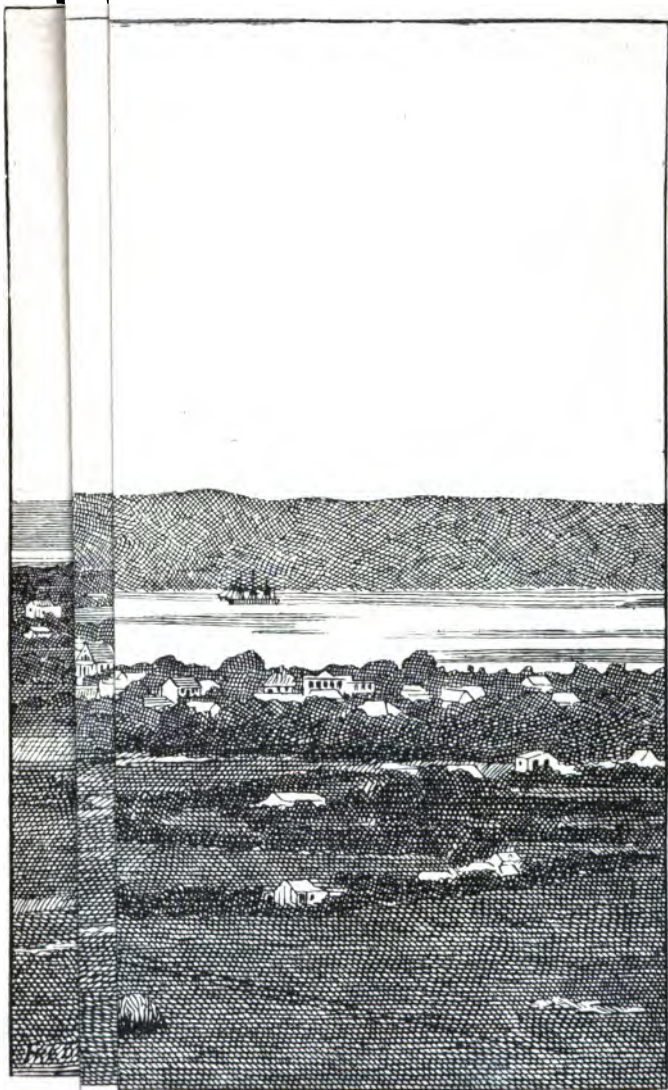
CHAPTER IX.

PORT NATAL AND HARBOUR WORKS.

The Harbour—Physical and Geographical Features—The Lighthouse—The Bar great obstacle for Navigation—£200,000 muddled away on rival Plans—Mr. Milnes' Plan—Sir John Coode's—Sir John Scott's—Mr. Abernethy's—Government Agreement with Mr. Jackson—£165,000 spent—Sir John Coode's Plans and alternative Plans—Total Cost £572,400—Proposed Commission of Exports—Failure of Mr. Abernethy's Piers—Conclusion.

UPON arriving at the port of Natal sailing-vessels usually drop anchor at the open roadstead—a distance of one or two miles from the ocean beach, which trends away to the north—until the state of the tide permits of their being towed into the harbour by steam-tugs in charge of experienced Government pilots. Steam-ships, however, do not always cast anchor, merely keeping up steam until the tide is at flood, when they can enter the harbour. At the south of the harbour entrance is a prominent headland known as 'the Bluff,' which extends—more or less at a right angle with the ocean beach—about half a mile beyond 'the Point,' or landing-place, which lies just within a low tongue of land jutting into the channel from the opposite side of the harbour. The extremity of the Bluff is crowned by a substantial lighthouse erected in 1864,¹ while close by the

¹ This lighthouse is in latitude 29° 52' 50" S., and longitude 31° 3' 35" E. It is an iron tower in the form of a frustrum of a cone, 81 feet high, and painted white. The centre of the light is 70 feet above the base of the building. The light is a revolving one of the second-class (dioptric), attaining its greatest brilliancy once every minute, and is visible at sea in all directions from north (round by east and south) to south 59° west; and can be seen from a ship's deck, if the weather be clear, at a distance of 24 miles. The light is not visible from the Aliwal Shoal, which is 25 miles south, and 53° west from the lighthouse; so that vessels should not approach the shore when coming from south and west nearer than four miles, or shoal the water under 40 fathoms, using the lead freely until they make the light well from the deck, when they may stand in until it bears north 59° east, thus bearing will keep them out of all known danger, until they are abreast of the Mulazi River (about 9½ miles below the lighthouse), when they must keep it more to the northward—as the land trends more to the eastward—giving the shore a good berth of a mile; when the light bears about east-north-east they can haul in to the northward and cast anchor in 8½ to 10 fathoms, with the lighthouse, bearing south-west-½-west, distant one mile.



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lighthouse is the signalman's house and a flagstaff. At the seaward end a great natural attraction exists, called 'the Cave.' It is a rock of large proportions, near the southern breakwater, which has been scooped out by the constant action of marine currents and waves, so as to form a huge arched fissure, through which the sea-water rushes violently. As it is easily accessible it is, of course, much frequented. A somewhat similar rock exists off the Isle of Wight. On holidays boats and steam-launches are constantly plying between the Point and the Bluff. The narrow water-way included between the Bluff and the tongue of land projecting into the channel from the opposite side of the harbour forms, so to speak, the neck of the bay or real harbour of Port Natal. The bay itself is spacious, being about ten miles in circumference, but the larger portion of it is shallow. The northern margin of the bay is fringed with mangrove trees, which are faithfully mirrored in an inverted position in the water, whilst the steep, grassy banks sloping down to the water's edge are covered with charming villas. These mostly stand in their own grounds, and with their smooth-shaven lawns and prettily-arranged flower-beds present quite an attractive appearance.¹ At low water the tide recedes a considerable

The focal plane of the light exhibited in the lighthouse will be considerably over 300 feet above the mean sea-level, but the exact height cannot now be given. Probably in the near future the system of lighting at present employed will be superseded by a perfect combination of electric lights, both on account of economy and the extra brilliancy and purity of the light. As dense fogs are unknown, a high degree of illuminating power is not of so much importance as it is in other seaports.

¹ The only drawback to these residences is the offensive odour which occasionally arises from the vehicular traffic on the bay beach when the tide is 'out.' This inconvenience could be altogether avoided, and the bay itself be considerably improved by running a crescent esplanade around the northern margin of the bay, with a sea-wall above high-water level on the inner side. Along this extensive sweep of reclaimed land, at distances of six and twelve yards from its inner edge, a double row of shade trees could be planted, under which seats might be placed. Moreover, by continuing this cheap embankment so as almost to encircle the bay, a railway could be cheaply laid from the Point to the Bluff, a junction being formed with the branch line at the Umhlaluzani River. This would probably induce many people to reside on the southern side of this noble expanse of water. On completion of the works, it would greatly enhance the value of the property. In point of beauty the bay is said to compare favourably with the Bay of Naples itself. The writer is hardly prepared to endorse that statement. But he nevertheless really believes that it is the finest along the coast of South Africa, though not the largest. The dazzling reflection of the sun's rays from the water's surface is extremely distressing to the eyesight in the daytime, but when the sun sinks beneath the ridge of the Benea into the western horizon a

distance, and the large area of sand which stretches itself before the eye is rather a disadvantage, but when the tide is 'in,' what a magnificent sheet of water! Every facility is afforded for bathing and aquatic recreation even in the most boisterous weather. The beach, for bathing purposes, is, without exception, the finest the writer has ever seen. The sand is smooth, clean, and firm, and slopes Bluffward so gradually that at the outer end of the men's bathing-jetty¹—probably a distance of some hundred feet—the depth is less than six feet at high-water of spring-tides.² The dangers usually attendant on sea-bathing on the beach are therefore absent—there is, indeed, hardly any possibility of risk. The tidal water is as clear as its temperature is delightful. On the ebb of the tide the beach becomes sufficiently dry for either walking or riding along the water's edge as far as the Point. If the equestrian be mounted on a high-spirited animal, the ocean beach will afford a soft ground on which to tumble, and the ocean itself will supply a saline restorative from a stretch of 6,000 miles.³

On the southern side of the bay, resting like gems on its glistening bosom, are four or five islets, but they have nothing of interest on them.⁴ Towards the westward side of the bay,

flood of mellow light is shed upon the whole landscape, with the soft luminous glow peculiar to sub-tropical sunsets—the bay assumes a pleasing aspect, while on clear moonlight nights it wears such a beautiful appearance as to enamour any lover of scenery.

¹ It is hoped by this time iron or stone piers have been substituted for the rickety and unsightly old wooden jetties which have so long disfigured the bay.

² As indicated by a gauge at the Point, the rise and fall of the tide is, ordinarily, about six feet. During the highest spring-tides, however, which occur, as most people are aware, a day or two after the time of the new or full moon, seven feet or more is reached, and, of course, low-water at this period is correspondingly lower than at any other, as high-water is higher.

³ A bathe in the breakers of the Indian Ocean is highly enjoyable—it is really 'a grand sensation'; but there are drawbacks to it. One is that the bather's head will receive a deposit of sand which, like 'the Bar' itself, is not easily got rid of. Another is the absolute danger involved. Many years ago the military used to be marched to the Backbeach, as it is called, daily, but in consequence of the number of men drowned, the authorities were compelled to put a stop to the practice. The third is, that should the bather happen to be touched by those pretty Portuguese men-of-war, which are very numerous along the coast, the skin will smart considerably. In former years, marine shells were to be found on the shore in great variety of size, shape, and colour, but they are scarce now. The waters of the bay and outer-anchorage teem with fish.

⁴ A Durban newspaper states concerning one of them that 'a gentleman inquired if "the Island" in the bay could be used for the introduction of

two small rivers—the Umbilo and the Umhlaluzani—empty themselves, but they are not utilised in any way; and at the east end of Durban there is a small, deep inlet, called ‘Cato’s Creek.’ The shipping lies securely in the Bluff channel, or that portion of the harbour lying between the neck of the bay and the islets just mentioned. Here vessels of all descriptions are at times to be seen; large flat-bottomed barges, bulky-looking cargo boats, graceful yachts, rakishly-built schooners, model sailing vessels, and, in short, every kind of craft from the tiniest canoe to the ocean-going steamer. The accompanying illustration of the Harbour may serve to render this description clear.

To this finely-sheltered harbour there is—unfortunately for the repute of the port—one great natural drawback, namely, ‘the Bar,’ a huge sandbank resting throughout its entire length on rock. In reference to this physical impediment, which shifts incessantly, Sir John Coode, C.E., whose name is so extensively known on account of his connection with harbour works in various parts of the world, says: ‘There lies between the sea and the harbour of Port Natal a considerable plateau of rock, stretching completely across the entrance, having only a limited depth over it;’ but ‘the bar proper . . . is composed of fine sand, deposited in the form of a bank, extending in a northerly direction from the salient point of the flat ledge of rock immediately under the Bluff, its position being indicated by a belt of breakers during the finest weather. . . . Seaward of the outer edge of the rock the bottom consists of gravel and stones.’ From its position and extent ‘the Bar’ is therefore greatly obstructive of navigation, necessitating the shipment and discharge of cargoes from vessels of large burden at the roadstead, or outer anchorage.¹ Moreover, the deep-sea channel

penguins, and for the establishment of a fishing [station?] and rabbit-warren.’ It was resolved by the Port Natal Harbour Board ‘that he be informed such proceedings would be undesirable on the following grounds:—The land on the east end thereof has been set aside for a quarantine station; with the increasing trade of the port, the shore on the northern side of the island will no doubt soon be required for a patent-slip, or “grid,” for repairing vessels; and, on account of the deep channel along the shore, the island may have an important value in the future. Other reasons were advanced by the Board for their refusal, although they admitted the desirability of some general plan of appropriation being arranged for the occupation of a portion of the area.’ Sometime previously the Harbour Board had represented this island as ‘the resort of large numbers of Indian squatters,’ and as ‘a place of deposit for quantities of putrid fish and other animal and vegetable matter.’

¹ Vessels of light draught, however, not exceeding (say) 500 tons burden, can cross the bar at high-tide. From June 1878 to May 1879

becomes so narrow and tortuous at times that, however enticing, it would be very imprudent for any shipmaster to attempt the pilotage of a vessel into the harbour unassisted, even in broad daylight.

Various works, having for their object the removal of this formidable sandbank, and the improvement of the harbour, have been begun. In round numbers 200,000*l.* has been 'muddled away,' but all to no purpose. On the contrary, as, in obedience to Nature's laws, the Mozambique current continually flows along the coast, bearing in suspension a vast quantity of sand, and as the habitual direction of the wind is from the north-east, much of this sand is deposited in the harbour with every tide. The particles are deposited at the ebb, when they become dry and consolidated, and so lessen the tidal capacity of the bay.¹ It is but reasonable to suppose that the rest of the loose sand, which sea-winds and sea-currents will not allow to escape out to sea, is deposited against the ledge of rock at the harbour entrance. There is also a comparatively inconsiderable quantity of earthy and vegetable matter deposited from the inland districts through which Umhlaluzani and Umbilo rivers flow, as well as from the drainage of Durban and its abutting lands. As this 'silting-up' process is in constant operation, it will naturally be inferred that the vast inner basin with its deep-water approach must be gradually becoming shallower, and the rate at which

(both inclusive) the average maximum depth on the bar is stated to have been 11 feet 6 inches, and the average minimum depth 9 feet 6 inches. The anchoring-ground at Port Natal is considered by master mariners to be much better than at either East London or Algoa Bay in the Cape Colony; but to avoid being driven on shore when the wind blows strongly from the eastward or north-east in boisterous weather, vessels sometimes have to slip their cables and run out to sea. Occasionally this cannot be done, and hence, probably, the large number of shipping casualties yearly recorded.

¹ Sir John Coode is of a contrary opinion. He says: 'That there is a constant stream (being in fact the southern end of the great Mozambique current) from north-east to south-east along this part of South Africa is well-known, but it cannot influence the sand travel upon the beaches, seeing that it is always at a considerable distance from the shore.' The evidence Sir John Coode has adduced in favour of this view, however, is uncertain and unconvincing; while a mass of facts and arguments which have been adduced in favour of a very different conclusion has been unconsciously neglected or purposely ignored. No doubt Sir John Coode feels perfectly satisfied that what he states is true; but at the same time it is perhaps probable that colonists should be ready to accept Sir John Coode's dictum, simply because he is ready to take for granted that which has not been proved, or because he is unable to come to any other conclusion. So far as the writer can gather, more can be alleged in defence of the view propounded above than against it.

the tide flows proportionately diminished. Such, in fact, is the case. On the south side of the Bluff channel, where formerly there was water deep enough to float large vessels at dead low-water spring-tides, and where a swift current used to run, there is now a sandbank with scarcely sufficient water over it on a similar condition of tide to float a steam-launch of 300 tons capacity. In short, the bay may be fitly represented as a shallow oval basin half filled with clayey mud and sand. It is generally admitted that something ought, and will have, to be done, but what that something is, or when it will be done, it would be difficult to surmise.

A complete history of the Natal harbour works has yet to be written, but however interesting and valuable such a history might be, it would monopolise too much space to be attempted in this little work, as the subject would, indeed, require volumes. For the benefit of those unacquainted with the port, however, some information, including the salient features of Sir John Coode's project, to which are added a few critical and explanatory notes, free from the voluminous and technical details, are given.¹ A proper understanding of the subject can be obtained without entering into technicalities. In order to show at a glance the aspect and direction of the different works that have been either commenced or proposed by Sir John Coode, a plan is shown on page 131. This will enable the reader to judge of the merits of Sir John Coode's colossal project, and to contrast its merits or demerits with those of Mr. Milne's plan. It has also been considered desirable to give the gist of the former gentleman's last theory as to the formation of the bar.²

¹ The writer labours under a disadvantage in not being able to refer to official documents.

² However plausible, or even tenable, Sir John's theory may be, it is only fair to note that it is totally different to that of other competent professional engineers, and really very contrary to his 1870 theory. According to the latter the 'Bar [on paper] results from the action of the sea during strong southeasterly gales, at which times the water, carrying in suspension large volumes of sand, travels along the coast, and on reaching the Bluff, wheels round, losing its velocity, and deposits this sand, which goes to form the Bar.' This is his own language. In 1877, however, Sir John visited the colony, and since that date he has abandoned his 1870 theory for the present one, a fact not to his discredit at all, though one or other of his theories must needs be wrong. This only shows that the fear of being accused of fickleness does not prevent him from suggesting what he believes to be right (but what others may deem to be wrong), without regard to its agreement with what he suggested before. There is such a thing as false consistency, and if Sir John saw his former theory to be wrong, and did not alter his plans in accordance with his new

'As in the case of bar harbours generally, there exists at this point two considerable forces or powers acting in direct antagonism, viz., on the one hand the force of the waves, spreading in a greater or less degree, to heap or pile up sand at the entrance, and, on the other hand, the power of the ingoing and outgoing tidal streams tending to central or neutralise this heaping or accumulating action, each of these forces varying from day to day, and commonly from hour to hour.¹

'The waves which cause the banking up of the Bar change, of course, with the strength, direction, and continuance of the wind, near or distant, according to the circumstances of the moment, whilst the opposing force, that of the ebb and flood currents, varies with the ever-changing range of the tides, and the quantity of fresh water from the uplands. . . . The wave action on the Bar . . . is more than ordinarily constant, owing to the undulations which, coming from the Indian Ocean, break on the shore with remarkable persistence, whilst the presence of a considerable quantity of fine sand, which is readily moved, tends to aggravate the evil. Fortunately, however, the counteracting force arising from the influx and efflux of the large volume of tidal water required to fill the extensive area of the bay, amounting to twenty-five million cubic yards, is more than ordinarily great also. . . . When the Annabella Bank is well "made up," the passage across the Bar is more direct and deeper than on other occasions.² This result could not well be otherwise, seeing that the southern margin of this bank acts temporarily to confine and train the currents in one and the same

views, he would have been disingenuous at least. According to an old proverb, 'He who never owns that he is wrong will never get right.' It is not probable that either of the plans proposed is perfect, but when more facts have been collected and duly weighed, it may eventually turn out to be the case that, under existing circumstances, the adoption of the plan originated by Mr. Milne, or one partaking of its character, would be most advantageous.

¹ Strictly speaking, this is scarcely correct; the tendency of rivers is to silt up, and of waves to deposit. They both act in unison as far as stopping up a harbour is concerned. The tendency to silt up and deposit is greater than the washing power of the waves, or the scouring power of the ebb and flood currents. The extracts from Sir John Coode's reports are slightly abridged to save space, and parts of some sentences are omitted, but words are italicised as they appeared in the local newspapers. Words enclosed in brackets are necessary to preserve the context of such extracts.

² This—account for the effect as one may—is acknowledged by everyone. What, then, causes this bank to be 'well made up'? This is a tough question, but in the answer to it lies, probably, the real clue to a solution of the as yet unsolved problem.

course, and thereby to utilise in the most effectual manner the scouring power due to the passage inwards and outwards of the large volume of tidal water. . . . The agency by which sand is transported along the South African coast is that due to the persistent rollers generated in the most distant parts of the Indian Ocean; these rollers having a distinct northerly bias.¹ . . . The problem to be solved in this, as in all similar cases, is—how to deal with these forces in such a manner as most effectually to combat and check those tending to *create* the Bar, and assist those tending to *destroy* it? The late Mr. John Milne, C.E., proposed that two symmetrical stone piers or moles should be built, one from the sandy-point on the north side of the harbour entrance, running in a direction nearly parallel with the north side of the Bluff, and the other from the end of the Bluff, on the south side of the harbour entrance, running in such a direction as to allow of an entrance at the outer end of these piers, varying in width from (say) 270 to 500 feet, as circumstances might require. The estimated cost of these works was 77,743*l.* Mr. Milne's plans and recommendations, after passing through the crucible of hostile criticism, were approved by the Legislature, and in 1849 the proposed works were begun. Their construction was proceeded with uninterruptedly, with very gratifying results, until 1856, when Mr., now Sir, John Scott arrived in the colony as Lieutenant-Governor. But the necessarily limited resources of the colony at that time, and the nature of the operations involved in their construction, did not admit of the works being pushed forward with much speed. Mr. Scott was not long in office before he made his power felt. The works in progress were summarily stopped, and Mr. Milne, like Othello, found his occupation gone.'²

¹ Mr. P. O'Meara, M.I.C.E., says: 'We have to do with a coast which for hundreds of miles is traversed by a belt of moving sand varying its form with every gale, almost with every tide, and capable practically of being controlled by one method only as yet applied or discovered, namely by the dispersing power of tidal currents directed against it from an interior tidal basin.'

² As no adequate reason was assigned for the displacement of the resident engineer—it certainly could not have been on the ground of incompetency or economy—it was felt on all hands that there was 'something' below the surface, but what that 'something' was colonists of course could only surmise. A Commission was appointed to investigate the whole matter, but little or no good came of the inquiry—at least, nothing was done in the way of redress to Mr. Milne. It was, however, generally known that besides being dealt with in a peculiarly parsimonious spirit by the Government—the total amount spent during the period extending from 1849 to 1856 in the execution of Mr. Milne's piers was but 5,500*l.*—Mr. Milne had to face the pertinacious

After a short interval a plan designed by Mr. James Abernethy, C.E., differing essentially from that of Mr. Milne, was submitted to the Legislature by Captain Vetch, R.E. Briefly put, his proposal was this :—To run out from either side of the harbour entrance into deep water two ramshackle structures, by courtesy called breakwaters. These were to converge, so as to give a harbour entrance of 800 feet, one pier starting from the end of the Bluff, with a deflection to the north, and the other from about high-water mark on the ocean beach, considerably north of Mr. Milne's northern pier, and curving, so as to approach the outer end of the Bluff pier. The construction of these piers was to be similar to that of works designed by the same engineer for the Isle of Man and New Zealand, each of which have since been pronounced failures, as also has that built at Natal. The estimated cost was for the southern pier 55,000*l.*, and for the northern pier 110,500*l.* Just as Archimedes exultingly said, that if he could only get a fulcrum on which to rest a lever he would move the world, so Messrs. Abernethy and Vetch, the projectors, declared that if they could only get a fulcrum of gold—165,000*l.*—they would move the worthless Bar; and, notwithstanding the presumptive evidence of the inefficiency of their scheme, and the cogent objections of Mr. Milne and other reasonable-minded colonists, the Abernethian project found favour with the Legislature. In due course that august body authorised the Lieutenant-Governor—who had likewise become enamoured of the new project, and whose voice was, of course, more potent than that of many colonists—to raise the necessary money, for which purpose, in 1860, he visited England, and succeeded in floating a loan for the amount named. An agreement was entered into whereby the Government was to pay the con-

opposition of a local official clique. It is probable that, in saying this, the writer will lay himself open to animadversion; still truth, even if it be unpalatable, must not be glazed over. It was equally well known that the Lieut. Governor and Mr. Milne were not quite eye to eye. In fact, they were at cross-purposes. It has been stated that Mr. Scott had irrevocably made up his mind that instead of Mr. Milne's solid stone piers, a semi-solid structure, similar to that which is now known as Vetch's or Abernethy's piers was required, and that he suggested to Mr. Milne the desirability of prosecuting such works, but the resident engineer, who was cautious, sometimes even to excess, seeing the impracticability of the proposed plan, and being more jealous of his reputation than some hydraulic engineers, declined to re-adjust his plans to suit the Lieut.-Governor's views. Although as anxious, perhaps, as Mr. Scott to realise the maximum of results at a minimum of cost, the resident engineer did not consider celerity or cheapness of construction a sufficient reason for abandoning his more durable works. He, therefore, rigidly adhered to his own plan, which was worked out from carefully compiled data.

tractor, Mr. Jackson, 165,000*l.*, for which he undertook, in consideration of the provisions thereof, to execute the works as designed and described by Mr. Abernethy, and to insure the specific performance in a given time; and as a guarantee against any possible breach of contract on his part, provided two responsible sureties.

Later on, Abernethy's temporary structures were proceeded with simultaneously. Each section of the framework was made of creosoted timber imported from England, and when floated into position was sunk, and then filled, or partially filled, with 'rubble,' or rough stones. This 'rubble' was brought from a quarry on the southern bank of the river Umgeni, and tipped in from trucks running on a tramway. Without wishing unnecessarily to depreciate or detract from the merits of the work done, the writer must say that the structural arrangement of the work was totally wrong; the materials and the various sections were unskilfully put together, and the nearer the works approached completion the worse the condition of the Bar at times became, whilst the most glaring constructive defects had to be patched up. For a time certainly all went well apparently, but ere long difficulties were encountered in course of construction which could not be concealed. Portions of the southern pier, which is more exposed than the northern one, were washed away. The works were ultimately stopped, and the contractor failed; failed, that is, in the sense of not having accomplished what he had undertaken to do.¹

A considerable period elapsed before the services of Mr., now Sir, John Coode were secured.² In 1869, however, that gentleman's coadjutor, Mr. Neate, C.E., arrived in the

¹ How much of the 165,000*l.* loan was absorbed by the contractor the writer cannot say, but in virtue of a flaw in the bond, or by reason of supineness upon the part of somebody, the Government was never indemnified by the 'guarantors' to the extent of 'a brass farthing.' This was bad, but worse remained behind. The consulting engineer—Mr. James Abernethy's brother—was freely accused of signing certificates of payments in excess of the terms of the contract. Whether this was true or no, the names of both Abernethy and Jackson were brought into a somewhat unenviable notoriety. Of course, it is futile and unwise to cry over spilt milk, but it may do some good to recall this incident, which is apt to be forgotten. Perhaps it may serve as a warning.

² In the interval between the period at which Abernethy's piers were discontinued by Mr. Jackson and the consultation of Sir John Coode—who was probably, as at the Isle of Man, employed under the recommendation of the Imperial Government—and, indeed, up to 1877, if not later, the Government, instead of arresting the progress of these piers, proceeded with them by fits and starts, and thus threw more 'good money after bad.'

colony, and, on the data supplied by him, Sir John Coode, in 1870, furnished the Government with a lengthy report and plans. He therein advised the adoption of a slight modification of Mr. Milne's discarded plan—by the substitution of a 600 feet entrance in lieu of the 500 feet as proposed by Mr. Milne—to cost 119,000*l.*, which was only (!) 41,257*l.* more than the estimated cost of Mr. Milne's entire scheme. This advice, however, was not acted upon. In 1871 the Colonial Secretary requested Sir John Coode to reconsider his decision and to report as to the feasibility of a 600 feet extension of Abernethy's north pier, to cost 12,000*l.* In his reply Sir John Coode reiterated and emphasised his former opinion regarding what should be done, and said, in effect, that he considered the proposed extension of the northernmost pier was not feasible. At a later date, but in the same year, a similar proposal was again, with singular persistency, submitted to Sir John Coode, the cost in this instance being only 15,000*l.* for a 1,000 feet extension. The result was that Sir John Coode materially modified his plans. The reason rendered by him for so doing, and for his sudden reduction of the estimated cost to 20,000*l.*, was ignorance of, or rather 'a change in the physical conditions' of the harbour mouth. 'A rocky plateau, which extends across the entrance of the outer harbour,' had been discovered,¹ and 'for the

¹ Sir John Coode was either aware in 1870 of the existence of this stratum of rock—on which his 1870 Report subsequently wrecked itself—or he was not. If the latter, he should have suspended judgment until the necessary experimental borings and soundings had been taken, and in the absence of which, as Sir John Coode himself has candidly confessed, 'the only alternative [was], for the Government to proceed with the harbour-works, in ignorance of the depths which it [would] be possible ultimately to procure in the entrance. But that he was aware of its existence, although not of its precise form and extent, his own admission shows. He himself in his Report of that year says 'rocks lying near or about the entrance . . . were known to exist many years ago, although its position was then scarcely defined.' Seeing, then, that the existence of a stratum of rock at the harbour entrance had been presupposed, why, in the name of common sense, were not Sir John Coode's plans and estimates prepared accordingly, so as to provide for such a contingency? In justice to Sir John Coode it must here be noted, as he himself in his last Report is careful to point out, that he had, over and over again, 'reported upon the inexpediency of incurring further expenditure upon any works whatever . . . until the fullest information had been ascertained and accurately laid down.' To that end he persistently urged upon the Colonial Government the necessity of employing a Marine Surveyor. 'Until then,' he added in one of his Reports, 'it is impossible for me finally to determine the exact position for the heads of the breakwaters.' He also pointed out that 'further borings [might] show that some modification of this width [would] be required.'

passage of the tidal waters,' or, 'in order to establish a current sufficient to fill and empty the bay, without interfering with the navigation of vessels into and out of the harbour,' he therefore deemed 'an entrance of *not less than 1,200 feet*'¹ indispensable. Again his advice was not acted upon. In 1877 Sir John Coode visited Natal and personally inspected the harbour. After a brief sojourn in the colony he proceeded to Ceylon; and in 1878, having in the interim obtained from Captain Hime, R.E.,² some further reliable data which was considered necessary by him to perfect his plans, he advised the Government to adopt a 1,000 feet extension of Abernethy's north pier on a somewhat larger scale, and to reduce the width of the harbour-entrance from 1,200 to 500 feet,³ the estimated cost of the whole proposed work being 488,000*l*. (The 1,200 feet entrance was proposed by Sir John Coode himself in 1871, and was only two feet less in depth than the 500 feet entrance proposed in 1877. Upon this important point Sir John Coode is significantly silent.) In other words, a more exact knowledge of 'the area, position, and levels of' a 'bed of rock' which had not been 'ascertained and accurately laid down' in 1870, had thus caused an entire change of the 'principle' of the 'original design,' and necessitated an increase in the cost of construction on his 1870 estimates of 369,000*l*. It is understood to be the invariable practice of marine engineers to make ample allowances for contingencies, but this difference glaringly illustrates the difficulty experienced in estimating,

¹ That is, the width of entrance according to Sir John Coode's modification of Mr. Milne's plan multiplied by two.

² The colonial engineer to whom is due the credit of having made some surveys, in 1871, in order to ascertain the area, position, and levels of the 'bed of rock' said to have been discovered in 1871. This ought as a matter of course to have been done years before, but was only brought about at Sir John Coode's request. He was not, however, the first to suggest it.

³ That is the width of entrance proposed by Mr. Milne, and of which Sir John Coode disapproved in 1870, the reason assigned for this alteration being that it would 'scour the stratum of sand overlying the rocky plateau . . . most economically, whilst the outer harbour'—presumably the area comprehended within the two northern piers and the ocean beach, as distinguished from the inner, or real, harbour—'would constitute an effective wave basin to absorb any undulation (or "scend") which might pass through the entrance,' whereas, in his own modification of Milne's design, 'owing to the contracted water-space between the two works, there would be a great "run" (or "race") and agitation in the harbour during gales.' It cannot have been that this was new to Sir John Coode, as this view was originated by a Harbour Commission appointed many years before he was consulted.

with anything like precision, the cost of works of this character. Taking into consideration the extra work and materials involved, this price may be the same proportional amount as in Sir John Coode's previous estimates, and may be only a fair equivalent for the work to be performed, but the question will force itself, 'Has there been no mistake?' It behoves colonists to see that there has been none, and that these estimates are not mere guess-work, which may undergo with every change of plan a system of simple and compound multiplication. In 1871 existence of the same 'bed of rocks' was cited as justifying a reduction in cost. Sir John Coode then distinctly stated—and, as there seems to be some eccentricity of reasoning on this point, his words should be carefully noted¹—'It is

¹ The cost of Sir John Coode's project in its swollen proportions was put down at £88,000*l.*, which was apportioned thus (see his 1878 Report):—

'Proposed double breakwater (1,600 feet), including the formation of the depôt and workyard (this work, without the addition of a 'depôt and workyard' was, in 1871, to cost 4,800 <i>l.</i>)	£295,000
'North pier extension	174,000

469,000

'Deepening of the rock-bed to a sufficient extent to afford a navigable depth of 20 feet high-water of spring-tides, with a breadth sufficient to meet the wants of navigation (say 100 feet)	19,000
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'Thus making together an expenditure of . . . £488,000

'For which sum,' Sir John Coode concludes, 'but not for less, will it be practical to provide an entrance available at *all* times, and of adequate depth to meet the requirements of Port Natal—the only harbour in the colony.' (Since the publication of Sir John Coode's Report, thanks largely to the energy of Mr. John Bayley, a veteran colonist, a snug little port has been opened up to steam-launches of light draught and small tonnage, at the mouth of the Umzimkulu River, about seventy miles southward of Durban.) And again, he says: 'I feel assured that neither will less extensive works, nor, having a regard to the present price of labour and materials in the colony, will a smaller outlay satisfactorily meet the emergencies of the case.'

Add to this cost of 'Draining banks and wharves in the Bay,' as proposed by Sir John Coode in 1870	84,402
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Grand total . . . £572,402

or 494,659*l.* in excess of the estimated cost of Mr. Milne's project.

A wide margin is allowed for cost, varying from this sum upward to

evident that owing to the existence of rock so near the surface, as recently discovered, the expenditure upon this work will be much [99,000*l.*] less than I had assumed' [in 1870]. That is to say, 41,257*l.* less than Mr. Milne's project, and 468,000*l.* less than Sir John Coode's 1877 estimate. 'And this' [20,000*l.*] Sir John Coode added, 'in my opinion is the least possible outlay which will effect a scouring of the Bar, and secure the greatest available depth over the rocky plateau which extends across the entrance.' Adding to the cost of scouring the Bar the cost of 'deepening the rock-bed,' which was not included by Sir John Coode in his 1871 estimate, the total cost would be 49,000*l.*, or (say) 38,743*l.* less than Mr. Milne's design, and 499,000*l.* less than his own 1870 estimate.

Before proceeding further it appears suitable to introduce here that portion of Sir John Coode's Report for 1878 in which he says: 'I propose to construct a south breakwater 1,600 feet in length in a north-east direction from the Bluff point, and to extend the north pier 1,600 feet in an east-south-east direction, the two arms converging so as to form, at their outer terminations, an entrance 500 feet in width.' 'The position' of the work on the south side of the harbour entrance was 'determined with a view to its being sheltered as far as practicable by the outlying beach or ledge, and by the salient angle of the Bluff headland. . . .

79,000*l.*, according 'to extent . . . both with regard to width and depth.' To this sum, 19,000*l.*, would have to be added the cost of working a steam-dredger, and something for wear and tear. Deducting, however, 15,000*l.* for a steam-dredger, the cost of which is covered by the 488,000*l.*, the cost will range from 19,000*l.* to 64,000*l.* It has been urged in objection that a steam-dredger, besides being costly to keep in repair, would be of very doubtful utility, and for this reason—owing to the exigencies of the tides, operations would have to be conducted at certain times of the night or day, and the results obtained would from natural causes be effaced by fresh deposits of sea-sand and alluvial soil during the intervals between the times of working. This objection, in so far as it is valid, is applicable necessarily to most harbours, but it is folly to ignore the results obtained by such means at other harbour-entrances, for the mere sake of opposition. That the bar-rock can be removed at an enormous cost is sufficiently attested by the achievements at other harbours, and that the depth of water on the bar-rock may be increased to '20 feet at high-water of spring-tides, with a breadth sufficient to meet the wants of navigation,' as Sir John Coode confidently anticipates, may readily be granted; but the question which involuntarily obtrudes itself is whether this depth can be permanently maintained by Sir John Coode's last plan, except at a prohibitive outlay? If not, why squander nearly half-a-million of money? If there is a shadow of a doubt on this point, the colony should secure the benefit of it. Sir John Coode avers that for 488,000*l.* it will 'be practicable to provide an entrance available at *all* times, and of adequate depth to meet the requirements of Port Natal.' But what if the contrary prove true?

The extension of the north pier should be proceeded with, adopting the same general mode of construction as at present,¹ but on a more massive section than hitherto, seeing that this extension would be exposed to a much heavier sea than the present work. . . . When this extension has been carried for a distance of 1,100 feet from its present termination, the rubble mound section would not be applicable, and for the remaining 500 feet necessary to complete the north pier to the full extent contemplated, the mode of construction should be of a similar character to that described for the south breakwater, but less massive in its proportions.' That is 'the structure from low-water mark downwards would consist of Portland cement concrete, deposited when in a plastic state, each bag weighing 25 tons. Above low water the bags would be levelled to a true bed, and a rib of solid concrete masonry raised thereon. . . . Previous to the execution of the concrete rib or super-structure above low-water level, the sub-structure of bags would be allowed sufficient time to come to its bearing, so as to obviate damage from subsidence after the superincumbent masonry had been placed in position. The breakwater would terminate with a substantial head, upon which there would be a small lighthouse. . . . For the full utilisation of these external piers, it would be necessary to form a deep water-channel or cut through the rock bottom;' and as 'the normal tendency of the currents running in and out of the harbour is to pass along under the north side of the Bluff, where the rock forms a natural training bank, until within 200 yards or thereabouts of the extremity of the reef,' Sir John Coode apprehends that no difficulty need be experienced in fixing 'the best position' for it.

'The proposed entrance [500 feet] between the heads of the two piers would be equal to filling and discharging the 25,000,000 cubic yards of tidal water, so as to produce a velocity of two knots per hour between the pier-heads, and so prevent sand accumulations between the deep water at the mouth of the harbour and that at present existing at the inner end of the Bluff channel.'²

¹ A modification of the Abernethian mode of construction, devised, as a sort of Hobson's choice, by Mr. Peter Paterson, C.E., and Captain Gordon, R.E. In lieu of the framework being sunk, piles were driven down into the natural bed of the ocean, and the interstices between the framework filled with rubble or loose stones.

² Mr. O'Meara seems to think that, owing to this confined area of action, there is a serious risk of the breakwaters themselves giving way. 'What,' he asks, 'if this scouring energy should carry away the breakwaters themselves,

'The works described have been framed with a view to direct and control the influx and efflux of the tidal current over a fixed and definite track, so that their scouring energy may be fully conserved for the dispersion of the sandbar embraced within the sheltered area formed by the two arms; moreover, the future growth of the Bar would be prevented by the fixity and regularity of the two-knot current. . . . Further, the entrance being seaward of the belt of broken water, could be 'made' by vessels without danger and in *all* weathers; the great depth would also preclude agitation of sand by wave-action, and the concomitant shoaling and heaping up which is now experienced.' 'But,' Mr. O'Meara contends, and with good show of reason, 'that as deep water is approached the blow from the waves will be more powerful, though the surf may be less, since the size and power of a wave depends always on the normal depth in which it rolls.'

Sir John Coode remarks in continuation that 'the external piers and deepening of the channel referred to should take precedence of all other works, since the measure of utility of any internal improvements must be regulated and affected by the sufficiency and permanency of the depth in the entrance. . . . Benefit will arise as the piers advance. Their convergence, when they have reached from half to three-quarters of the contemplated length, could not fail to effect a material improvement in the deep-water approach of the harbour.' . . . To check the blowing sands from the dimes [sand-hills] at the south end of the point . . . a rubble-stone embankment should be formed in continuance of Milne's pier, and . . . the surface [of the dimes] should be so trimmed or levelled down that the slopes should in no case be steeper than about 4 to 1, and afterwards planted. . . . A training bank on the south-west side of the channel . . . could not fail to have a beneficial effect upon the depth of the channel immediately in front and to seaward of

especially of the south breakwater, which lies along the direct course of the currents, which foundations are, in point of fact, a portion of the Bar itself which is to be removed?' The only possible answer to this question is, that as the foundations of all similar works at other ports, where the harbour entrance does not exceed 500 feet, have not yet been subverted, it may be assumed that they would not be in the case of Port Natal, excepting the foundations were not sufficiently deep or solid.

¹ This is tantamount to an express declaration that it would be from 5 to 7½ years from the date of the commencement of such works before any appreciable increase in the depth of the deep-water fair-way would result therefrom.

the wharves. [It] would both *create and maintain* deep water in the most important and valuable part of the harbour.¹

For marine works of this description 488,000*l.*, or 572,402*l.*, may, or may not, be a reasonable sum of money. When it is considered that this sum represents about one-third of the colony's current indebtedness, when the extinction of that debt (1,500,000*l.*) is desirable—when the revenue of the colony is only 470,350*l.*, or 45,400*l.* less than its actual expenditure—when the works proposed partake of an experimental character, the cost of which will, as in the case of Abernethy, have to be borne by the colonists without reference to their success—when the same engineer submits three distinct designs, each one of which appears conspicuously at variance with the others—when, again, there is an uncomfortable feeling that Sir John Coode even in his last estimate, which he would fain have colonists believe is the minimum cost for which a suitable harbour entrance can be provided, may perhaps be too sanguine, and that some contingency may arise whereby a million pounds would have to be substituted for the 488,000*l.* requisite for his outer works alone²—when other competent engineers have been consulted independently of each other, and notwithstanding the fact that the object of all has been identical, each one differs from the other as to the best means to attain the desired end—when Mr. Milne's design, supplemented by some blasting, is

¹ This view has been combated by Mr. O'Meara. He thinks it would 'cut off, without necessity, the large and valuable ground of the Lazaretto channel.' Obviously, the formation of fixed training banks would considerably lessen the present water-area; but, on the other hand, it has been urged that the result of accumulated experience in other countries goes to prove, if it proves anything, that this drawback is more than compensated for by the increased mean depth of the remaining area resulting therefrom. The extra tidal velocity becomes proportionately and energetically effective. This is a subject upon which a good deal may be said no doubt on both sides, but it must be admitted that Sir John Coode's recommendation, if not absolutely authoritative, carries with it great weight. Mr. O'Meara also maintains, with obvious reasonableness, that there is no 'adequate reason for adopting the raised line of ultimate wharf frontage which Sir John Coode proposes in preference to an extension of the line of the present wharf.'

² It should be recollected that at compound interest this sum of money alone will double itself in about 14 years. Circumstanced as the colony is, there is, therefore, this all but insuperable objection to Sir John Coode's plan, however good it may be, that it would cost too much. If for no other reason, it is not likely to be sanctioned by the Legislature. Whether it will be better to delay the requisite expenditure for any outer works until the cost can be defrayed from the colonial exchequer, or to borrow the money required at once at a comparatively high rate of interest, is of course an open question.

likely to be equally as effective as Sir John Coode's, and less costly—when, so far as one can judge, there is a consensus of local opinion in favour of that design—when the work could be executed in perhaps one-fifth of the time than would be required for Sir John Coode's structure—when, roughly speaking, 200,000*l*.¹ has already been frittered away in experimenting, without good results accruing, at a time when the colonial treasury could ill afford to be depleted, even to that amount—when costly internal harbour improvements are urgently needed²—when railway extension and other productive works are of primary importance—when adequate provision for commercial exigencies can be made by private enterprise, when, consequently, the colony's prosperity does not hinge entirely upon the possession of a fine tidal harbour—when such and kindred considerations force themselves on one's mind, the wonder is that the Natal Legislature should have been so favourably disposed towards Sir John Coode's project.

Certainly, in such a case, the old Dutch proverb 'Delay is not always loss' applies with peculiar force, and no one can be surprised that Sir John Coode's beautifully tinted plans—for which, doubtless, he was handsomely remunerated, as he or any other professional adviser should be—have, like Mr. Milne's, been shelved or cremated. It does, however, strike one as being very strange and suggestive that the Government, after having paid Sir John Coode for his advice, without having acted upon it, should continue to dilly-dally with him for a term of about ten years, just as though he were the only maritime engineer in the world open to consultation. If, with a full appreciation of the changes involved in the three plans submitted by Sir John Coode, the Legislature could not safely repose confidence in him—if that gentleman's dictum did not find cordial acceptance, or if, again, it was considered that he had formed such a prejudgment of points at issue as would prevent him from giving due consideration to the proof by which those points are established, then, why was no other hydrostatic engineer consulted? Surely such men as Sir Charles Hartley, Sir John Hawkshaw, and others, whom it is needless to name—men who are, perhaps, at the very least Sir John Coode's equals in every qualification, and whose opinions are entitled to equal respect—could give a decision that would

¹ Or, 35,000*l*. in excess of the amount borrowed by Sir John Scott in 1860.

² Training banks and wharves are set down by Sir John Coode at 84,402*l*.

be of considerable, if not decisive, value. The most perfect plans are sometimes the product of superior genius in a single individual, but more frequently they are the result of consultation, and the production of a committee. Would it not be prudent, therefore, for the Legislature—with a full appreciation of the responsibilities involved in an expenditure of something like 500,000*l.*—to appoint a Commission, composed exclusively of eminent experts, to investigate the whole matter and decide as to the cheapest and speediest method of improving the harbour? ¹

To show the reader what a complete failure the alternative project is, some direct and conclusive evidence may here be given. Mr. O'Meara says: 'The outer half of the north pier is now [May 1878] very badly in want of extensive repairs. Although but three years since it was so far completed, it is seriously damaged. The rollers which . . . frequently break across the pier from the north-east, although they are much reduced in force from having to pass over the Bar, have flattened out a considerable length of the pier, well towards the centre; and there is one regular breach in it about 250 yards from the outer end, through which the waves now pass from side to side at high-water. . . . The stones have been rounded off, and I think considerably reduced in size, on the outside of the pier, right in to the low-water mark on the

¹ When Abernethy's jenny-built piers—which on the island itself, as in Natal, had been so unequivocally condemned by disinterested people from the first—were swept away at Douglas, Isle of Man, the Manse Government by what appears to be, but really is not, a curious coincidence, sought Sir John Coode's services. His plans, however, proved unacceptable to the insular Legislature. To be perfectly frank—and without wishing to speak slightly of one who has justly acquired honourable distinction—the work actually executed by that gentleman at Douglas, though presumed from plans prepared by him, is not in accordance with his own original specifications and recommendations, but rather with those obtained in direct opposition thereto, and in which what was regarded as objectionable in his own was either modified or carefully eliminated. The absence in Natal of an energetic opposition, such as was exhibited in the Isle of Man, does not imply that Sir John Coode's recommendations are acquiesced in by colonists generally as the best, inasmuch as it simply arises from the fact that the great majority of colonists are fully absorbed in their own private businesses. Others, who are not too busy, are unable and indisposed to examine the dicta they are requested to accept upon faith; while some again are deterred from expressing an opinion adverse to Sir John Coode, simply because they do not like to be held up to ridicule, or spoken of contemptuously by that gentleman's supporters. Were any attempt made, however, to carry out Sir John Coode's 1878 scheme, it is quite certain that the united pressure of public opinion would be brought to bear on the Natal Government—and with as much effect, as it was on the Manse Government in the case referred to.

beach; and towards the outer end, where the stones are larger, they have the same worn and rounded appearance across the entire breadth of the pier.

‘It is evidently only a question of time for the greater part of the work to disappear under the grinding action of the waves, and this time is not far distant, for the effects will be more rapid as the stones get smaller. If the old pier is to form a part of the permanent work, it will require a considerable sum to put it in good order; and it would be far better if adequate means were taken to secure it against such expensive wear and tear; for decidedly the old mode of construction has the great defect of requiring a constant and increasing sum for maintenance. Long before the north pier extension, proposed by Sir John Cooke, will have reached the 1,100 feet which he recommends to be constructed on the old mode—but with a more massive section than hitherto—it will, as he himself says, be exposed to a much heavier sea than the present work. No matter what dimensions may be given to the section, the inherent radical defect of rubbly piers (in comparatively shallow water) will remain with it, and a greatly enhanced sum for repairs will be the result. Indeed, to judge from the effects of the reduced waves on the present work, and from the “more than ordinarily” constant battering which it must undergo as the work advances on the Bar, I am of opinion that the mode of construction recommended, let the section be as massive as you please, will afford but a temporary defence, unless an altogether prohibitive sum be spent on repairs.’

The editor of the *Natal Mercury* (June 1878) expresses himself to the same purpose, although with more brevity. He says: ‘The staging of the noble pier is going to pieces, and the cost of repairs, day by day, grows greater,’ and, it might have been added, is likely to do so more and more.

So, too, at a later date (August, 1880), Mr. G. L. Meade, says: ‘The wooden breakwater is fast becoming a thing of the past; there are four large gaps through it. The rest of the timber is so rotten, that another year or two will see it washed away, and thus will vanish one of Natal’s follies—but it will leave a sting behind in the shape of interest on the borrowed capital.’

It is thus quite evident that these frail structures—which have been completely honeycombed about the low-water level by the teredos,—are continually needing repairs, the cost of which is becoming more excessive year by year, and will do indefinitely;

that from their own inherent rottenness, they must ultimately fall to pieces, and become worse than useless; and that they are not, therefore, worth, in the end, the amount they will cost. The expenditure hitherto incurred, by the ineffective tinkering of these piers, may constitute but a fraction of what will yet have to be paid unless decisive action is taken by the colonists themselves to stay the works in progress. There is a strong aversion to undo the past by the removal of the half-rotten piers begun by Abernethy; still, costly and humiliating as the work would be, it might prove cheapest in the end.¹ No one can honestly deny that their destruction by storm would be fraught with the gravest consequences to the outer anchorage and the harbour; and it is but fair here to express surprise that, notwithstanding that Abernethy's project is, and was long before 1871, such an utterly discredited failure, Sir John Coode should have seen fit, in 1878, to incorporate the northernmost pier with his own works, and therefore jeopardise the safety of the whole structure. If the adoption of the Abernethian mode of construction would work disastrously in 1870, by what ingenuity of reasoning can it be shown that it would do otherwise at a later date? To have extended the northernmost pier 1,600 feet in the fashion Sir John Coode proposed, and on such a dangerously unstable foundation, would assuredly have been an extremely hazardous experiment. With all respect for the genius and experience of Sir John Coode, it may be said that *that* would have been progress in the wrong direction. As it is, many colonists seem to have a presentiment that Abernethy's northern pier will yet be completely shattered by one of those exceptionally violent storms which occur at certain periods. This would be still more likely to happen were the pier extended in a course to the point of the compass indicated by Sir John Coode, particularly if 'less massive in its proportions' than his proposed southern pier, since the objectionable bend, where it is deflected in an east-south-east direction, where the contemplated new work would be joined on to the old, would then receive the full impact of waves travelling across the Indian Ocean with considerable velocity during heavy inshore gales. Even were it 'of a more massive section' than the present shaky fabric, it could hardly resist such a terrific strain for many years together. *That* may be taken for granted. What the ultimate form of the harbour-works will be no one can say;

¹ A cardinal point in Sir John Coode's 1870 design was the utilisation of the material in Abernethy's movable pier for his proposed extension of Mr. Milne's pier.

but under existing conditions and circumstances, with, after all, so little definite knowledge concerning the 'physical conditions' of the harbour-mouth, probably the modification of Mr. Milne's plans devised by Sir John Coode himself in 1870, which is virtually the same as Mr. Milne had in view from the first, and intended, in accordance with his perfected plan, to construct, or what may be called Sir John Coode's 1878 'alternative' plan, will be carried out, unless a third and better one is discovered. Most colonists are of one mind that, as being strictly in harmony with fundamental principles, Sir John Coode's 1870 plan would do more to improve the harbour than any other, barring, of course, Mr. Milne's own, which itself admits of definite improvement, and which is precisely the same in principle as Sir John Coode's 1870 plan.

Were Mr. Milne's plans so modified and applied as to suit the altered conditions of the harbour, or the excellences of his and Sir John Coode's plans combined, the harbour-bar would, doubtless, soon be got rid of, and the harbour itself be deepened. There would then be plenty of room for deep-drafted vessels to manœuvre. Whichever design finds most favour, whether either Mr. Milne's, Sir John Coode's, or somebody else's, it will probably be found that, in order to be effectual, it will be necessary to 'humour' the caprices of nature, to assist, and, in some sort regulate, her operations.

As corroborative of the writer's view, an extract from the editorial columns of the *Natal Mercury* (Feb. 1880) may here be given:—

Ever since Durban became a port, the badness of its harbour-entrance has been a recognised grievance. Ever since Natal had a British Government the necessity of measures to improve the entrance has been a matter of agitation. 'The Bar' has been the stock 'drawback' to the advance of the colony, from the time when J. E. Byrne first drew attention to the charms of Natal as the Southern Paradise. Thirty-two years have rolled round and . . . for all that we can see when we begin again we shall have to start from the beginning, and as likely as not may revert to first principles as laid down by Mr. Milne. We have spent (say) all round 200,000*l.* in efforts after improvement. We have proceeded with three breakwaters and finished none. Of these the oldest (Mr. Milne's) is the only one that has successfully defied the assaults of weather and time.

However humiliating or unpleasant such a confession may appear, a return to those very 'first principles,' which Mr. Milne laid down, and elucidated in an exhaustive manner, in a series of articles published some years ago, is really the safest

course.¹ This, in all probability, is the decision that a competent impartial Harbour Commission would have come to; and, as it is as clear as the noon-day sun, that no other inference is fairly deducible from the facts elicited, it is no wonder that there is an irresistible consensus of colonial opinion in its favour. Not only is it perfectly feasible—its simplicity constituting, perhaps, its chief merit—but its estimated cost is reasonable, and such as would be justified by the present circumstances of the colony.² The unfinished north pier is remarkable alike for its solidity and

¹ Mr. Milne, whom the Government treated very shabbily, was an experienced engineer, whose professional competence no one has ever challenged. From having spent over a quarter of a century on the spot, he had exceptional facilities for familiarising himself with the apparently inscrutably erratic movements of 'the Bar,' the direction and force of winds and currents, and a number of minor conditions which could be only ascertained on the spot, and which must govern the question as to which plan would be most applicable. On the other hand, the duration of Sir John Coode's stay in the colony was—well, less than a month. Mr. Milne's knowledge, therefore, was derived from observation and practical experiment, and with these qualifications he demonstrated the correctness of the principles broadly enunciated by him, and on which his project had been based. This much may truthfully be said: that his conclusions never included more than his premises, and Sir John Coode has not either before or since 1870 attempted to refute Mr. Milne's arguments, and although it does not necessarily follow that what is not, or cannot, be disproved is proved, yet it is an absolutely incontrovertible inference that if Mr. Milne's primary principles were admissible in 1870 they are no less applicable to-day. As the German proverb has it, 'what is clear is true.' Moreover, it is no exaggeration to say that Sir John Coode's 1870 modification was a substantial endorsement of the correctness of Mr. Milne's projects in its entirety, although that emphatic endorsement was expressed in a general way, and with some qualifications.

² Its practical utility, together with its relatively smaller cost—logically, the smaller the amount, the less the risk—is a sufficient recommendation; but, regarded from a purely colonial point of view, there is the additional consideration—not by any means an unimportant one—that whatever would be expended thereon would be spent in, and *not permanently lost to*, the colony. The *Natal Mercury* (of date Aug. 1880) in one of its 'leaders' says: 'There is every reason to believe that Mr. Milne's pier might be extended just as cheaply as Captain Vetch's (or Abernethy's) pier.' The writer of these pages has not allowed his judgment to be influenced by this opinion, yet he feels that he ought to lend its support to his own honest and independent impression. It is strikingly indicative of the growth of public opinion in a given direction. In the same article it is further stated that the Harbour Commissioners appointed in that year had been 'at pains to show that, according to Sir John Coode's own (1870) estimate, Mr. Milne's plan could be carried forward to a point of absolute utility, at a cost of 20,000*l.* for both the North Pier and a southern breakwater. . . . This being the case, and Mr. Milne's plans and principles being equally unimpeachable,' the editor very pertinently asks, 'why should there be any hesitation in pressing forward the completion of works so completely within the means of the colony?' There can be but one answer.

structural strength. It compares excellently with Sir John Coode's works in Great Britain, and would compare to its advantage with any work of a similar character elsewhere. Notwithstanding that it has been mischievously tampered with, this superb example of solid masonry has withstood the battering action of the Indian Ocean for a period of more than a quarter of a century. It seems as stable as the Great Pyramid itself, and compared with it Abernethy's flimsy structure is as a dew-spangled cobweb gleaming in the sunshine.

As others are theorising and planning, the writer may be pardoned for venturing to briefly indicate in these pages a modification of what, for the lack of a more definite name, may be termed Sir John Coode's 1878 'alternative' plan.

Remove the bar-rock to the extent required.¹ 'Construct a double breakwater 1600 feet in length in a north-east direction from the Bluff,' as suggested by Sir John Coode, but (in lieu of ponderous blocks, or masses, of concrete) of solid masonry,² and instead of in an east-south-east direction, from a northern arm 2,900 feet in length beyond the outer end of Mr. Milne's, in a line with 'the southern margin' of the 'Annabella Bank,' which so vitally affects the condition of the bar, in fact, if found necessary, to the same spot that is fixed upon for the termination of Sir John Coode's proposed extension of Abernethy's northern pier,³ 'the two arms converging so as to form, at their outer terminations, an entrance 500 feet in width.'⁴

¹ Why not at once invite tenders for its removal?

² A broader base, however, Mr. Milne proposed, and a proportionate increase in the breadth of its upper surface, with the sides sloping at a gentler angle from low water downwards, might be an improvement. Were the blocks of stone larger in size as the works progressed seaward, and faced with Muhulahun granite, the piers would have all the more stability. It is a fact, which will not admit of dispute, that concrete masonry deteriorates faster by exposure to weather than granite.

³ To be sure, Mr. Milne's plan, and Sir John Coode's modification of it, were not similar in all respects; but they were alike in this, that the direction of the northern pier from the shore was, excepting a slight deflection, precisely the same; that is, in a line with 'the southern margin' of the Annabella Bank, 'as shown by red dotted lines on (Sir John Coode's) drawing No. 2.' If the present large span of the harbour mouth was reduced to 500 feet—and on this point, though previously at issue, there is no difference of opinion between Sir John Coode and Mr. Milne—the velocity of the tidal water would be increased, and cause additional scouring through the opening between the pier-heads, and would possibly *quite* prevent the silting process in deep water outside of the artificial harbour entrance thus formed. Unless absolutely necessary, however, this 'prolongation of Milne's pier' need not be pushed out to its full length.

⁴ In his 1878 design Sir John Coode has fixed his entrance, as Mr. Milne

The projecting end of the north pier would have the effect of vertically cutting up the incoming waves, and by thus diminishing their momentum, they would probably expend their force before reaching the harbour. As this prolongation of Mr. Milne's solid stone pier would occupy precisely the same site as the 'Annabella Bank' where it is 'well made up,'¹ it is not illogical to infer that similarly good results would follow the substitution of solid masonry for a deposit of 'light sand';² indeed, even Sir John Coode could not resist the conclusion that a 'prolongation of Milne's pier would be more certain to confine the currents to

did his, at exactly 500 feet, and as 'the normal tendency of the currents running in and out of the harbour is to pass along and under the shelter of the bluff, where the rock forms a natural training bank, until within 200 yards or thereabouts of the extremity of the reef,' this width, doubtless, would be productive of 'satisfactory results of a permanent nature,' as Sir John Coode says, although he weakens the force of the statement by alleging that 'owing to the contracted water space between the two works there would be a great "run" and agitation in the harbour during gales,' and that such 'an extension would not afford the same latitude with regard to variation in the ultimate width, and in the aspect of the entrance, as in the case of the northernmost pier extension' (Abernethy's). It is just possible, however, that the 'run' on the colonial exchequer would not be so 'great' as it would be in the event of carrying out Sir John Coode's last plan, but of this every reader will form his own judgment. In his 1878 report Sir John Coode says that 'the formation of a channel through the rock would cause the sides or escarpment of that channel to act as natural training banks, or barriers, confining the ebb and flood currents to one and the same line, and thus render unnecessary other works. Hence it is that 'the existence of this rock is not,' as Sir John Coode remarks, 'an unmitigated evil.' Moreover, there can be no doubt that after the completion of the piers the sheltered area on the north side of the channel (between the two northern piers) would sand up in continuation of the Annabella bank, and act still further to confine the currents in the desired direction.' Objection may justly be taken to this assumption, which appears to be entirely arbitrary. To the writer's knowledge—and doubtless, if he is wrong as to this, some one will correct him—no proximately sufficient reason for expecting such a result has been brought forward by Sir John Coode, or any other expert. That 'the sheltered area on the north side of the channel would sand up' in just the way Sir John Coode assumes may be capable of adequate proof, though the writer doubts it; but as yet it really remains unproven, and it is therefore logically unsafe to trust to its doing so.

¹ In his 1878 report Sir John Coode implicitly admits, and no one disputes the fact, that 'when the Annabella Bank is "well made up" the passage across the bar is more direct and deeper than on other occasions.'

² It may fairly be concluded that it would serve to 'utilise in the most effectual manner the scouring power due to the passage inwards and outwards of the large volume of tidal water' (25,000,000 cubic yards), as the Annabella Bank does now, when 'well made up.' Very evidently the Annabella Bank is a factor which must not be ignored in any plan for deepening the deep-water fairway.

a definite track than the extension of the north pier' (Abernethy's); besides effectually breaking up those extraordinarily 'heavy seas' which he says are 'brought in by gales in distant parts of the Indian Ocean, although at the same time there may be no wind at or near the shore.' According to Sir John Coode, 'the east of this arm would be considerably in excess of that of the proposed north extension' (Abernethy's). Granted; but would not the cost of the proposed north extension (Abernethy's) from the shore to its outer termination exceed the cost of Milne's pier from the shore to the same spot? If so, *then* assuredly—to use the language of Sir John Coode again—'the object in view could be more economically obtained by the adaptation of a design partaking of the character of that propounded by Mr. Milne,' because, from its own inherent rottenness,¹ the Abernethian structure must ultimately collapse, and will therefore at some future period have to be replaced by 'structures of a plain, substantial, and permanent character, without superfluities of any kind.' This proposition is self-evident.

The space already devoted to this subject precludes any suggestions being made in regard to Sir John Coode's proposed southern breakwater. The writer will therefore conclude this section by a suggestion or two. It needs but a cursory examination of the harbour-mouth to convince anyone that winds as well as the force of tidal currents exercise a powerful controlling influence upon the large quantities of loose sand deposited there, and which threaten to choke up the contracting channel; and also to show that some irregularity of tidal action is caused by the Mageni river, which discharges itself into the sea about three or four miles northward of the northern breakwaters. In order to help to mitigate the prejudicial action of this large stream—which unquestionably plays an important and decisive part—and to ensure the permanent maintenance of a deep-water fairway, it is in the first instance obviously necessary to second the

¹ What Mr. O'Meara aptly terms 'the inherent radical defect of rubble piers,' and this irrespective of 'what dimensions may be given to the section,' or structural alterations. If this view be adopted, it follows that any immediate advantage that would be gained in the cost of construction by not building the whole fabric in either concrete or stone masonry, would be counterbalanced by the cost of repairs alone in the course of a number of years. Even were it not so, experience has shown that Abernethy's wooden structures, which were built prospectively to deepen the entrance, have had a completely contrary effect. This fundamental reason against the adaptation of Sir John Coode's modification of Abernethy's design cannot be set aside.

efforts of nature.¹ But beyond this, the writer would suggest that a considerable reinforcement of fresh water could easily be obtained in the bay by diverting the Mlazi River into the Mhlatuzani River, to which the Mumbilo River might be conjoined at the head of the bay.² And as the scouring effect to be thus produced would be proportional to the volume of water as well as the momentum of the outgoing body of water, the drainage from Durban and its abutting lands could likewise be led into the same channel. It appears reasonably and perfectly proper to suppose that the powerful mechanical action of such a large augmentation of the volume of water, guided in a given direction, and passing at every tide through a narrow neck—of 500 feet—would so agitate the deposit of 'fine sand' as to cause its dispersion, in the same way as the sediment in a small phial of water is by agitation rendered fluid enough to run out with almost as great facility as water itself. It is just in this way that the Mgeni River, when flooded, becomes scoured to its greatest depth, and scoops out for itself a more direct channel through the deltoid formation at its confluence with the Indian Ocean. Although, however, it seems as clear as the first four rules of arithmetic that the concentration of this large body of water would at ebb-tide—by producing the maximum effect of 'scour'—carry away any accumulated sand particles or alluvial deposit on the bar-rock, one cannot be blind to the fact that it might not prevent an appreciable deposit seaward of the artificial entrance, where the power of the outgoing stream would be dispersed; but it would act as a powerful deterrent, and owing to the absence of rock, and the difference in the depth of the water there, a deposition of sand or alluvium would be less obstructive to navigation. To prevent the sea encroaching, and the 'passage of sand into the entrance of the channel at the west or landward end of Milne's breakwater,' the Government would

¹ It may be noted that the amount of soil from the bay is treated of as being of no account in the sum of Sir John Coode's calculations; at least, he only mentions a dredger, and the expenses of working it are omitted; but let that pass.

² True, it may be said that in some cases it is unwise to tamper with the natural course of rivers liable to flood, but in this case, with proper precautions, no damage would result. The Mlazi River could, at any time, be restored to its old bed. Moreover, as for most of its length the Mhlatuzani River flows over a rocky bed, the alluvium carried from its banks in suspension would be inconsiderable. Even were this found to be ineffective, the diversion could be used to supplement the ordinary water supply, from whatever source it may be obtained.

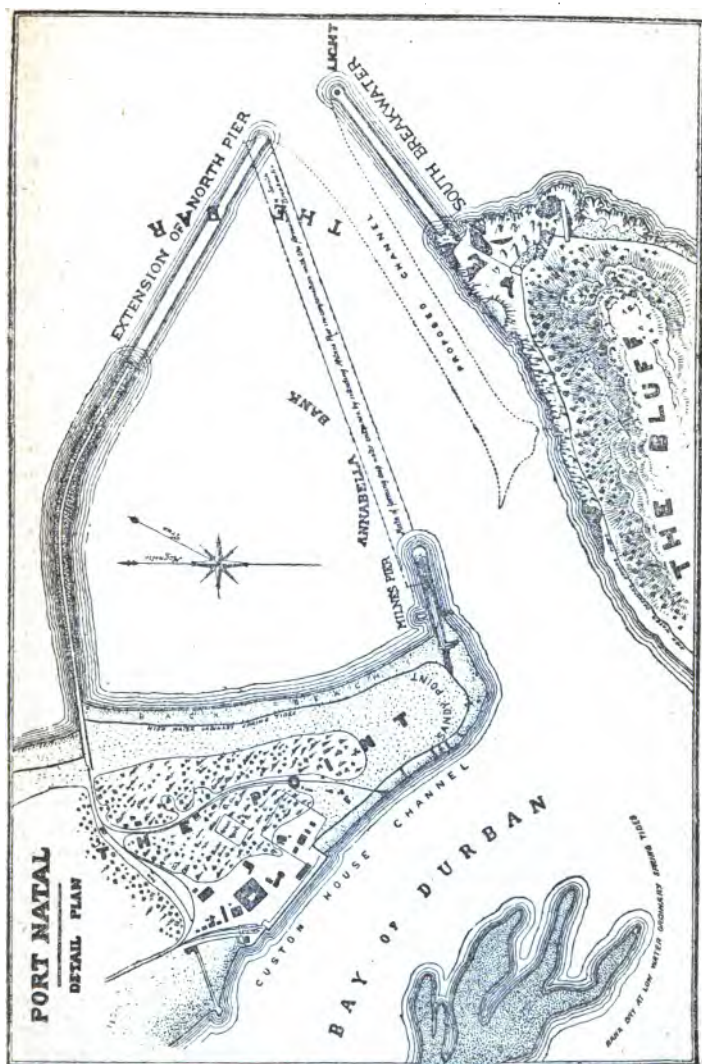
do well to act upon Sir John Coode's valuable suggestion, namely, to form a rubble stone embankment. And after leveling the dunes, or natural hills of sand, it would be as well to superimpose a stratum of alluvial soil. The sand-hills might then be planted with such trees as bent, and Italian pine. A sea-wall should also be built northward of Milne's northern pier.

It follows from the very nature of this discussion that the writer may to some extent have exalted Mr. Milne's project to the disparagement of Sir John Coode's. If so, it is because the former appears to be more in accordance with common sense, and has a far greater preponderance of evidence in its favour than the latter. If in the course of these pages the writer has said anything apparently unfair or disrespectful toward Sir John Coode, he must disavow such intent, and inform his readers that he can have no such meaning. Public men are fair subjects for public criticism, and it is a matter of entire indifference to the author which scheme is adopted, so long as it is the most suitable. He is actuated by no personal considerations, and has simply endeavoured clearly and fairly to state the facts, so that disinterested readers, with only the slightest knowledge of the subject, can judge for themselves how matters stand. In reality, however, as everyone knows, it is impossible for one to avoid intellectual bias; but if the writer knows anything of himself or his motives, he knows he has studiously refrained from the suppression, misrepresentation, and unfairness which attaches to the advocacy of foregone conclusions. He has argued for nothing more or less than the legitimate conclusion which every one is entitled to draw from facts, by applying the ordinary principles of evidence on points which may fairly lay claim to serious consideration. He is mistaken if he has not the concurrence of most colonists who have expressed themselves in any way regarding the harbour-works. Whatever opinion may be entertained concerning the manner in which the subject is discussed, few will deny that the question is one on which to a very great extent the future of the colony depends. It is not improbable that some readers may think it would have been better had this subject been avoided, as involving more space for controversy than is consistent with the limits of so slender a volume; yet the writer ventures to hope that others will perhaps think differently. It appeared to him both desirable and reasonable that the English reader of these pages should know something about a subject that has provoked so much controversy in

Natal, and one which is fraught with deep interest to every colonist. That the space devoted to it is so considerable, is due partly to the extent and nature of the subject coming under review, and partly to the repetition of statement rendered unavoidable. But after all the subject has been very inadequately touched upon, and while the writer hopes to be forgiven for trespassing so much on his readers' patience with what to colonists will undoubtedly sound like a twice-told tale he trusts a good purpose may be served thereby.¹ It is, of course, not possible to do full justice to every topic within the compass of so small a volume as this. Other sections that may be deemed of greater importance by some readers will therefore have to be treated with brevity or remitted to an Appendix.

¹ For a further discussion of this vexed subject the reader may be referred to two pamphlets published in the colony, one by Mr. H. Escombe, entitled 'Sir John Coode and the Half-Million'; the other by Mr. P. O'Meara, entitled 'Sir John Coode's Harbour Scheme for Port Natal.' In no other work issued have the facts regarding the harbour works been stated so completely, yet concisely, as in the former, and it is remarkable alike for its vivacity of thought, the felicity of its illustrations, and the delicacy of its satire. The author puts forth his arguments with the dexterity of a special pleader; but also with an undoubted conviction of their soundness, and he has not weakened his strong case by haphazard exaggerations. To some of his expressions of opinion, however, the present writer does not in the least subscribe. Mr. O'Meara's pamphlet is written with undeniable acuteness and vigour, and, being the production of a professional man, carries considerable weight. To the statements which both these authors urged Sir John Coode has attempted no reply. The series of articles published in the *Natal Herald and Colonist* some years back by Mr. Milne are entitled to no ordinary degree of attention, and it is to be regretted that they were not afterwards published in a separate form. The local papers also contain many valuable and original communications and leading articles on the subject. The writer of these papers will, of course, be happy to acknowledge any incidental error into which he may be proved to have fallen; and if any of his statements be even unintentionally misleading, he will regret it.

N.B.—Since the foregoing has been in type, the writer has been informed that the works originally planned and begun by Mr. Milne have been adopted, and are in progress. This is neither more nor less than was to be expected.



HARBOUR WORKS.

к 2

CHAPTER X.

THE NATIVE AND OTHER POPULATION.

Mixed Population—Kafirs—Proportion of Europeans—Native Labour—Security of Property—Aborigines Protection Society—Their Agitation—Protection of Natives—Native Odour and Philanthropy—Miscegenation—Unsophisticated Kafirs—Native Language and Grammar.

THE population is of a mixed character, being made up of Europeans, Boers, Germans, Hindu coolies, St. Helenians, Creoles, Hottentots, and Kafirs, the latter preponderating numerically. As compared with Europeans they are as twelve to one—that is to say, in 1880 they constituted rather more than eight-ninths of the total population, viz. 364,338. And instead of dwindling in numbers, as the aboriginal inhabitants in other countries have usually done when brought into contact with civilisation, they are multiplying, and, as a matter of course, they are likely, as time goes on, to increase in a compound ratio. Indeed, it is somewhat remarkable and suggestive that the European population has only increased from 6,000 in 1840 to 25,563 at the present time, while the natives within the colony, who in 1846 numbered probably about 80,000, at the present time are not less than 319,934 souls.¹ It must not, however, be inferred that this rapid growth of the native element is solely due to natural increase, for such is not the fact, there having been a large and constant influx of natives from neighbouring territories, some coming from as far north as Delagoa Bay, and others from beyond the Transvaal Republic. In this preponderance of the natives, however, there exists no cause for uneasiness whatever. There have been, it is true, a few refractory chiefs, like Lanjilabela, who have given the government some trouble, and who have had to be signally punished for their contumacy; but the fact remains that with these exceptions the natives have, from the date of the occupancy of Natal by the first white settlers to the present time—a period of over 57 years—been perfectly docile, orderly, and loyal; and now that the power of the surrounding hostile tribes has been completely broken, there certainly is no probability of disaffection. In Natal, therefore, property and person may be considered to be quite as secure as in any part of the civilised world. Moreover, there can be no

¹ The large emigration now taking place will soon alter the relative numbers.

doubt that notwithstanding the diversities of race, language, and religion, the different sections composing the coloured population are on harmonious terms. That dissimilarity of sentiment and feeling which existed in former years is now no longer noticeable. Indeed, it is a fact which the writer can record with the most sincere pleasure, that the virulent racial antipathy which many, even well-informed persons, in England assume as existing between the native inhabitants and Europeans is purely imaginary. The members of the Aborigines Protection Society, who are never so happy as when levelling enormous shafts of criticism at colonists, which, however, whistle harmlessly by, are the great agitators in respect of setting class against class. Surely it were wiser to manifest towards the colonial kinsmen a kindly feeling. So far from any antipathy existing between the two races, the white people are in reality imbued with good feeling, and are on terms of perfect amity with, their dark-skinned brethren. It is, in fact, to their own pecuniary interest to conciliate rather than to irritate them. They are in that position of interdependence which necessarily precludes from being subjected to tyrannical or brutal treatment. This is an indisputable fact. On the one hand, the Europeans depend chiefly upon the labour of Kafirs and Hindu coolies for the success of their industrial enterprises, and, on the other, the coloured population depend upon remunerative employment from the former for support. Their conduct, therefore, is based upon mutual interest, which is the firmest bond of union.

That the supreme Government are solicitous to secure the social, moral, and religious welfare of the natives, is shown by the following extract from the Instructions to the Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the colony of Natal, dated February 16, 1882 :

Clause XXIII. The Governor is, to the utmost of his power, to promote religion and education among the native inhabitants of the Colony, and he is especially to take care to protect them in their persons and in the free enjoyment of their possessions, and by all lawful means to prevent and restrain all violence and injustice which may in any manner be practised or attempted against them.

I have good reason to believe that any attempt at oppression of the dusky, or, as they are sometimes called, the inferior races, would be quickly resented. The real fact is that, as a rule, a subordinate in free and enlightened England receives far less consideration at the hands of his employer, than a coloured servant does from his master in this colony. This statement may be questioned, but the fact remains.¹ Moreover,

¹ Unfortunately, the relations existing between some of the planters and the Hindu coolies are not quite so satisfactory as could be desired; but this is

since their tribal relations are recognised by the Government, the Kafirs are in a semi-independent position. They live under their own chiefs, and cheerfully pay tribute to the Colonial Government. It is worthy of remark too, as showing their improved condition, that not only have they increased in numbers, but they have likewise—as will be seen by reference to the Appendices—accumulated property in horses, cattle, farming implements, and buildings. They thus have a stake in the country. They are fully protected in their rights, and can obtain justice within the colony as readily as a European can, no matter if their opponents be immigrants or not. In the eye of the law black and white people all enjoy an equal status; there is, virtually, 'no distinction of language, colour, origin, or creed.' And nothing but just treatment is necessary in order to secure their continued allegiance. Upon this subject, a very sensible writer thus expresses his opinion: 'Our native tribes are loyal and fairly-contented, nor is any one of them to be compared with the Basutos, as an element of danger, from a military point of view. We do not hesitate to say that all which is wanted in Natal, as regards the maintenance of internal peace, is the existence of a Government that enjoys the thorough confidence and sympathy of the native population. That is the be-all and end-all of the "native difficulty" here; and such a Government we shall never have until we, the colonists, take the reins into our own hands. Any responsible ministry of colonists, no matter who might lead it, would be compelled in defence of its own existence to pursue such a policy towards the natives.'—*Natal Mercury*, March 20, 1882.

The subsidies paid by Government to missionary native schools will show what a grave error it is to suppose there exists much race prejudice. In one instance, the Government went so far as to erect a sugar-mill for the natives. It seems somewhat singular, in the face of incontrovertible facts, that the British public should be so gullible. It must be confessed, however, that notwithstanding the spurious 'man and brother' sentimentality of purblind Exeter-Hall-ites and self-seeking agitators, who are so fond of moralising at the expense of colonists, of whom they know little and care less, Anglo-Saxons, naturally enough, do not appreciate being placed

easily explained, and is a matter which can be rectified. Even as it is, most of the coolies, when the term of their service has expired, remain in the colony. It is pretty generally felt, too, that the time has come when the Native Administration Law of 1875 should be remodelled.

'cheek by jowl' with Kafirs, say in a railway carriage. The great objection to their presence arises from the 'very ancient and fish-like smell' which pervades them, especially when they perspire profusely: from this one instinctively retires, no matter how much in favour of the universal equality theory. As everyone who has had to do with them can vouch, this natural aversion, however odious, is not easily overcome. Many of the gushing philanthropists who believe in theory that it is possible to wash the blackamoor white, when it comes to practice alter their opinion and hold their noses. Like Shylock, they will buy with them, sell with them, but they will not eat with them, drink with them, or pray with them—except perhaps on special occasions. I should be sorry indeed to sneer at any well-meant, though mistaken, efforts for the amelioration of the coloured races, but as a rule many of these Exeter Hall, and similar sensational movements, do more harm than they do good and engender discontent. In Kafirland, as I have shown, the natives are able and willing to take care of themselves.

There is a tendency to impress the natives with the fact that their white employers are their superiors, but the intercourse between natives and colonists is perfectly free, and it may be that the time is coming, perhaps all the more surely because slowly, when even this tendency shall cease. As the illustrious Scottish bard has sung:—

It's coming yet, for a' that,
That man to man, the world o'er,
Shall brothers be, for a' that.

This, at any rate, is a comforting reflection for the Kafirs to indulge in; but, inasmuch as no alliances are formed with them by Europeans, it is tolerably evident that the process of assimilation will be slow. It may be consolidated when the Millennium arrives. Meantime, it behoves each race to make the best of the respective situations, and happily this is exactly what is being done. It will necessarily take many years to overcome the mutual disinclination for intermarriage, or to educate white women to appreciate the blessings of miscegenation.

As domestic servants Kafirs are generally well-behaved and tractable, albeit they will only work at their own sweet will, and for a limited time. They are employed principally as 'hewers of wood and drawers of water,' but many are also quite competent to do various kinds of mechanical work. Physically they are well developed, some of the men measuring fully six feet, although the average is less; the women, though

well-proportioned, are generally smaller, and are obliged to labour for the men, who live in luxury and idleness. Polygamy is general among them. They are passionately fond of personal adornment and frivolous amusements, as well as of music and humorous fiction. In this they resemble the American negroes. They are also argumentative, sharp-witted and light-hearted, but very impressionable. Though averse to sustained labour, they are honest and trustworthy. They take the world easily, are not in a hurry to become rich, and are free from all appearances of mental anxiety. Whether their contentment will deepen when they are brought under the civilising influences of education, it is, of course, impossible to say. As to the origin of the Amazulus of Natal, there is really nothing reliable known; there is, however, ground for the belief that the blood of the Arabs flows in their veins. It is extremely difficult to dispel the execrable superstitions with which their minds are so thoroughly imbued, and which have gathered strength by the influences and associations thrown around their lives, or to educate them in those delicate proprieties and graces which constitute the beauty of occidental civilisation in the nineteenth century. Still, it must be allowed that some of them have shown themselves to be amenable to civilising, if not to evangelising, influences; and there can be no doubt that ultimately, in spite of all opposition, Christian civilisation and culture will supplant heathenism. The number of propertied natives is not large, most of them being occupiers, but many are in comparatively easy circumstances. Regarding Kafirs in their native state, a writer says:—

Nothing can equal the happiness of these unsophisticated beings, who are by nature harmless just so long as they are unmolested. I have, whilst residing amongst them, observed as their strongest characteristics their common sense and great idea of justice. The young men are, like ourselves, weak and unwise; that is natural to young men of all countries; but the elder men whom the missionaries used to call the 'lost savage,' often illustrated to me the great social problem of civilised life. They very well knew what they were about in the government of their kraals; their business was always undertaken with an eye to profit, and an avoidance of loss; and they were just in their dealings without the trouble of a balance sheet. In all their meetings the great courtesy they exhibit towards each other is singularly marked in its character, showing us that they have not required civilisation to teach them this. . . . A Kafir will never pass the settler or stranger, if he likes his appearance, without the friendly greeting of 'Sachaboua inkosi,' or 'Hamba gooschly inkosi;' but, if he does not approve of his personal appearance, he will pass by without the commonest salutation. . . . I have found that these people require to be dealt with with a certain amount of tact, and, if well managed, they make excellent servants. But having certain, not very wild, notions of justice them-

selves, they must be punctually paid, and treated with civil firmness. Any other method than this ends in excessive inconvenience to both parties; for they will not only not work themselves, but go about informing all the Kafirs in the neighbourhood how they have been ill used; the consequence of which is that a bad master or manager has difficulty in obtaining labour at all. They do not take much note of time; they sing and dance when they are merry, sleep when fatigued, eat and drink when hungry and thirsty. Days, weeks, months, and years pass by unnoticed and uncounted. If in want of comforts which must be purchased, they work to earn money; if well provided, they will do nothing. . . . Despising luxury and having very few wants, give him his pumpkins, his cattle, and his children, and he is full of cheerfulness, ready to laugh, play, dance, and sing. In this they do not resemble the civilised man, who cannot so easily banish care, but is anxious in taking heed of the morrow. . . . Scarcely a white man shows his face among them but they mark his peculiarity, and distinguish him accordingly. If a man is very rapid in his movements, and goes about with almost a jumping step, they designate him 'crackle-gait.' Should he keep a sharp look out after those whom he has taken in his employment, they style him 'eyes.' If another wears spectacles, from not having any name for that masterpiece of the optician, they know him by the name of 'glasses.' These, which are names given comically by facetious persons in civilised communities, such as ours, are used by them in all seriousness and good faith. Their names are rendered still more amusing by their appropriateness, as 'porcupine' given to a man with hair cut so short that it stands upright on his head, or 'buffalo' applied to a humpbacked man. . . . When a person desires to send a message to another residing a long distance off, a special messenger is hired, who carries the letter at the top of a stick, by putting it into a slit made at the end; this he holds well over his head, and like the postman, runs the whole distance, sometimes fifty or sixty miles, for the fee of five shillings. Nothing induces these messengers to loiter on the road except the offer of a spoon of snuff by a friend, a temptation which the Kafir never can resist; for it not only means snuffing but news; and they are as fond of gossip as any old ladies of Bath or Cheltenham over their tea and muffins.

No one will deny that they dearly love a long *indaba*. The language in general use is English, which is exclusively employed in the Legislature and Law Courts, though other tongues are becoming more common. Even the Kafirs, who among themselves speak in their own vernacular, have a smattering of English, often enough to make their meaning tolerably clear in conversation. A rudimentary knowledge of the native language—all that is requisite for general purposes—will be of great service to emigrants. Such knowledge is easily acquired, but the correct pronunciation of some words into which clicks are introduced will be found difficult, and oftentimes impossible to those not born and reared in the country. A phrase book, or better still, a grammar, will materially aid those who may be desirous of acquainting themselves with, or becoming proficient in, the native tongue. Excellent Zulu-English dictionaries are procurable from colonial publishers and stationers.

CHAPTER XI.

THE TOWN AND PROVINCE OF DURBAN.

Durban Second Town in South Africa—Rapid Growth of—Situation happily chosen—Imposing appearance of the Shops—New Town Hall proposed—Other Public Buildings—Schools—Chamber of Commerce—Places of Worship—Band—Promenades—Custom House—Clubs—Cemeteries—Hotels—Durban calculated to sustain a dense Population—Pietermaritzburg and surrounding district—Dwelling Houses: where and how to Build—Site—Materials and Directions—Assessment value of Houses—Thunder-storms and Precautions against, &c.

ALTHOUGH Maritzburg is the official seat of Government, Durban is acknowledged to be the chief town for business. It is a borough possessing municipal institutions, its local affairs being under the management of a Mayor and Town Council. It also possesses the privilege of returning two members to the Legislative Council. In point of revenue and population it is the second town in South Africa. According to the 1880 census, the population of the town and suburbs was assessed at 760,846*l.*, or rather more than double what it was in 1870, and an increase upon the previous year's valuation of 93,119*l.* The Valuation Roll of the borough last year (1881) amounted to 1,000,788*l.*, being an increase upon the 1880 valuation of 239,942*l.* The value of land is thus rapidly rising, and Durban promises to become a town of some consequence. Time was, and that within the recollection of many colonists, when, instead of stepping from a vessel on to a spacious wharf, and then into a railway carriage, old and young, men and women, had either to land in open boats, which ten chances to one would leave them in a miserable plight, or be carried from the boat to the shore by unclothed but sure-footed natives, and had afterwards to trudge through sand ankle-deep to what was dignified with the name of Durban. The site of the present town and suburbs was then covered with a growth of bush and sub-tropical vegetation, in which wild beasts prowled at night. There was a long irregular thoroughfare through the dense primeval bush, crossed here and there by straggling roadways. Durban consisted of little more than a few one-storied 'wattle-and-daub' structures, and some tents dotted at wide intervals in cleared openings in the bush. We

have changed all that now. The town and its suburbs have gradually been transformed, and there are unmistakable indications of a sound local and commercial prosperity.

The Dutch Boers certainly displayed considerable prescience in their choice of sites for towns. Durban, so called after Sir Benjamin D'Urban, a former Governor of the Cape Colony, is situated on the northern margin of the bay, and about two miles from the Point Wharf, or landing-place. It is in lat. $29^{\circ} 52'$, long. $31^{\circ} 1'$, at an elevation of about 22 feet above the sea-level. It is, roughly, about a mile in length, and probably a quarter or third of a mile in width at its widest part—Field Street. As at Maritzburg, the principal streets run in parallel lines intersected at regular intervals by several equally broad transverse streets leading to the bay. The streets are not, however, parallel with, or at right angles to, the meridian.¹ This arrangement of the streets allows free circulation of air in every part of the town. In fact, the air blows fresh from off the Indian Ocean right up the main thoroughfares, and, with proper sanitary arrangements, Durban would be one of the healthiest towns in the world. The principal streets are about 100 feet in width, the greater number of them being metalled for a width of 40 feet. The advantage of this paving can be fully appreciated by those who in the earlier years of the colony's history had to wade through sand ankle deep. The streets undulate a little, but are as straight as an arrow. In this respect they contrast favourably with the wretchedly crooked, narrow and dirty streets of most towns and cities in Europe.

Excepting when there is very much rain, the streets are remarkably clean, and, owing to the upper soil of the town being of a porous nature, the surface water caused by the heaviest rainfalls quickly settles downwards, and so prevents any noxious vapours arising.² The footpaths are paved with bricks, or other

¹ Originally the town was thus divided into large blocks of nearly two acres each, but these have since been divided and subdivided into even, or rectangular areas, having a frontage of about 103 feet and running back 150 feet.

² The appearance of the town would, however, be vastly improved were rows of syringa and fig trees planted all along the outer edges of the footpaths on each side of the streets, similarly as the boulevards of the continental cities are planted. Some time ago the Town Council voted 300*l.* for the adornment of the town with trees. In a sanitary point of view this is certainly a move in the right direction, as the healthy influence of trees is surprisingly great. It is well known that carbonic acid forms the food of vegetable life, and that plants of every description are provided with leaves which suck up this gas from the air, thus removing one of the agents most

suitable material. Without attempting to give a description of Durban, it may be of service to state briefly what are the chief places of public interest. The railway station lies about midway between the east and west ends of the town. On emerging from this spacious iron structure, the first building that attracts one's attention is the Market House, a large rectangular building somewhat in the Italian style. The large waste space abutting against the Market House, and enclosed by iron chains fastened to posts, is at present used as Tattersall's. This is intended to be the site of the new Town Hall, which the Corporation propose to build. It is hoped that the structure will be worthy of the position and of the colony. The next noticeable building is St. Paul's Church, the oldest sacred edifice in Durban. It was intended that a tower and spire should have risen from its western front, but, owing to the funds raised at the time being inadequate, a curtailment of the original design became necessary, and it has not yet been carried into execution. This is the more to be regretted as this church possesses the advantage of an area of sufficient space in front and around it. Close by, in Church Street, is the Mechanics' Institute and Free Reading Room. The old wooden erection has recently been superseded by a more suitable structure, which, however, has not yet been carried out in its entirety, as the trustees are short of funds. In addition to a handsome donation by Mr. Savery Pinsent, the Institute has a

destructive to human life, and producing that atmospheric uniformity which renders life happy. It has been calculated that a lime tree will produce 11,000,000 leaves, having an united area of 200,000 square feet, and that a lilac tree with 1,000,000 leaves has about 400,000,000,000 pores. Not only do trees absorb deleterious gases, but they exhale oxygen and purify the soil. The importance, therefore, of selecting trees for planting in towns and cities can scarcely be over-estimated. The writer has, under another heading, referred to the desirability of estates being skirted by forest trees with a view to modifying the heat of the climate, and beautifying the country, and it might be added as a source of future revenue. The kind of trees best suited for that purpose are mulberry, syringa, indiarubber, red and blue gum (*Eucalyptus*), and black wattles. These trees are of rapid growth and would in a few years wholly change the aspect of the country, besides forming cheap boundary fences and supplying some fuel. The iron-bark tree, also, grows quickly and is tough. The olive, oak, sycamore, maple, and chestnut, though of slower growth, might answer well. Lilac, elm, and lime could also be tried. *Amalungula* and some other fruit trees, though of slow growth, are certainly preferable to prickly pear trees for hedges. In some cases it would be profitable to plant groves of such quick growing forest trees as those enumerated for fuel alone. They would at the same time afford shade and shelter to stock and crops, to say nothing about their sanitary influence or the superb appearance they would impart to estates.

library of 4,000 volumes. Catalogues and regulations are obtainable on application to the Librarian.

West Street, which acquired its name from Mr. Martin West, who was the first Lieutenant-Governor of the colony, is the main business thoroughfare of the town, and it is lined on both sides, almost from end to end, with shops and 'stores.' In earlier years the chief business premises were situated at the east end of the town, but since 1860 they have been gradually attracted to the railway terminus, and at present the central portion of West Street is the focus of commercial activity. To-day the handsomest shops and business premises are between Gardiner and Grey Streets—two cross streets—and these, consequently, command the highest rents. Gardiner and Field Streets, which are compactly occupied by spacious and elegant buildings, rank next. Some of the merchants' establishments are quite as commodious and well adapted for their purposes as English houses in densely populated provincial towns, and thus carry on the same class of business. As a rule, however, although considerable originality of adaptation is manifest, there are no strikingly novel architectural features. The houses are chiefly built of plastered brick. Amongst the most extensive establishments may be mentioned those of Messrs. Parker, Wood and Co.; Steel, Atkinson and Co.; Harvey, Greenacre and Co.; Randles Bros. and Hudson; and E. Snell and Co. These premises are of varied height and still more varied design, and would, in point of size, vie with many leading business premises in England, whose reputation is world-wide. One of the handsomest business establishments is that of Messrs. Grant and Fradd, an old established firm. Of course, there are as yet no monster five or six storied buildings, crowded from basement to copingstone with sculptured decoration, as in England, but the architect's art is gradually coming to the builder's aid; more ambitious structures are rising, and, doubtless, as stone is now more easily obtainable than it has heretofore been, it will by degrees come into greater use. 'Rome was not built in a day.' With the march of improvement most of the old thatch-roofed houses, which were conspicuous by reason of their glaring violations of art canons, are fast disappearing, to make way for more modern dwellings. There still remain, however, a few primitive looking shanties in the main streets, but it is tolerably certain that the date of their demolition is not remote. They certainly are a discredit to the taste and enterprise of the town, and the sooner they are re-fronted or demolished to make way for superior buildings the

better. Meantime they serve as venerable landmarks, and impart variety to the street architecture. The wholesale houses are mostly situate in West Street, Pine Terrace, and Smith Street, and the value of the stock-in-trade of some of these establishments must be enormous. Warehouses are located, for the most part, in Commercial Road.

A few other details may be useful. The Council Chamber, a two-storied building, is opposite Messrs. Grant and Fradd's premises in Central West Street. The Town Council hold their meetings and transact public business on the ground floor, and on the first floor is the office of the Town Clerk, Mr. Wm. Cooley. The Council Chamber is sometimes used for public business, &c. It is quite time, however, that the present building should be supplanted by an edifice more in conformity with the spirit of progress which is manifested in every direction by private individuals. This, no doubt, like many other local improvements, will come in due time. As a matter of fact, the Corporation have advertised for plans for a Town Hall and Government offices, to cost 35,000*l.*, if not more. St. Joseph's Roman Catholic Church is situated at the corner of Grey Street, diagonally opposite the European Hotel. The original building, in which the Rev. J. B. Sahan had officiated for so many years, was of the humblest character, but the appropriateness of the present edifice, both in character and size, is acknowledged by every one. The completion of its internal ornamentation is, however, left to the future. When the plans of the architect are carried out in their integrity this imposing structure will be the finest specimen of ecclesiastical architecture in the colony. It is intended at some future period to add a peal of bells. Further progress is stayed for lack of funds. Close at hand is a Young Ladies' High School connected with this church. The Young Ladies' Collegiate Institution is situate at the corner of Russell and Smith Streets. At both these seminaries young ladies receive a superior education. The Governor's Marine Residence is further down Grey Street, and forms an effective object in the view of the town from the bay. The General Hospital, facing the Athenæum Club, in Smith Street, has been converted into a High School, and the institution itself removed to a new building in a healthier position, which is said to be fitted up with every improvement conducive to health and comfort. The site of the new General Hospital has been judiciously chosen. It is somewhere about half-way between Durban and the Point. It is well elevated and has a sea frontage, from which charming views in different

directions are to be had. There is plenty of breathing space, and the building, which was erected under Mr. P. Dudgeon's directions, is of a size correspondent to present needs. It cost upwards of 13,000*l*. The Masonic Hall, a well designed building, stands at the corner of Beach Grove, facing Smith Street. St. Cyprian's Church, opposite the Masonic Hall, is, or will be when finished, a monument of Mr. R. S. Upton's skill and taste. Further east, near Field Street, there is a large skating-rink. At Trafalgar Hall, Central Pine Terrace, there is an American bowling-saloon. The Presbyterian Chapel is situate in Field Street. It is a plain-looking square building. The Congregational Chapel is at the corner of Chancery Lane and Smith Street, immediately opposite the Manse. It is reached, in front, by a flight of steps. It was designed by Mr. Upton, who personally superintended its erection. This place of worship is supported by voluntary contributions. The Chamber of Commerce is in Gardiner Street. Here, for a small annual subscription, one can answer letters, see the latest telegrams, and consult files of European and colonial papers. Mr. G. R. Harrison is the secretary. There are, at least, two banks, the *Natal* and the *Standard*.¹ Both buildings are newly erected, and are appropriately in keeping with the solidity of the business carried on within. The *Standard Bank* is an exceedingly handsome structure, and cost about 8,000*l*. Mr. Upton, to whom the colony is indebted for many of its architectural adornments, was the architect. Externally the *Natal Bank* is not distinguished by much beauty of ornamentation, but it is a well proportioned edifice. The late Mr. G. Milne was the architect. Interiorly both banks are elaborately decorated, and the internal arrangements are such as to facilitate the prompt despatch of business. The *Natal Bank* is the oldest monetary institution in the colony, and, being the Government Bank, the directors are under the disadvantage, if it is one, of having to publish its assets and liabilities at regular intervals. In respect to position, the two banks possess almost equal advantages. The Wesleyan Chapel is on the plot of land adjoining the *Standard Bank*. It is the finest Nonconformist place of worship in the colony, and would be a credit to any town. It is on the site of a humbler building which was pulled down in 1877, and, under the direction of the late Mr. R. Ridgway, most of the old materials were worked up into the present edifice. The original Wesleyan Chapel was in Alimal Street, opposite the

¹ Mr. James Brickhill is manager of the former institution, and Mr. Edmund Thomas of the latter.

present Government buildings. There is also a Baptist Chapel. This unpretentious little sanctuary is situate at the east end of West Street.

The Town Gardens, to which there are four main entrances, are well laid out, and planted with a variety of indigenous trees and shrubs. There are numerous seats, and it is pleasant to retire here from the glaring sunlight and noise and watch the huge banks of cloud drift almost imperceptibly athwart the blue sky, whilst their soft shadows glide at a correspondingly slow pace along the darkened brow of the Berea. There is also a band pavilion, and whenever the town band plays the broad walks are promenaded by the inhabitants. A movement is on foot to raise subscriptions for the erection of an equestrian statue of the late Prince Imperial, which it is intended to place in the gardens. The Government Buildings, in which the judicial, postal, and telegraph business is conducted, is 'located' at the east end of the gardens. The utter inadequacy of the present structure for the purposes for which it is used has been repeatedly pointed out. As it is, public business of the greatest importance has to be conducted in a series of inconveniently small apartments, such as are a disgrace to the colony. In respect to acoustic properties the court-room certainly falls far short of excellence. It is of ample proportions, but is so modelled interiorly that the speech of the loudest speaker is lost. Thus, the greatest inconvenience is caused to the judges and magistrates, the members of the bar, and suitors. Although the present situation is not altogether objectionable, it is intended shortly to erect a more suitable building, and one commensurate with the requirements of the colony, opposite the Natal Bank. The central position of this site would undoubtedly be a great convenience to the public. The gaol is situate at the east end of the town. It is a plain building of large dimensions, and the internal arrangements are superior to those of other prisons in the colony. Persons desirous of inspecting this building can obtain an order from the Governor.

The Customs' House is situate at the Point, a sandy spot with buildings straggling up from the water's edge. It is an unpretending, low-roofed building, which could be advantageously replaced by a more stately edifice. The trade of the port has increased so rapidly of late years that the area of wharf accommodation is totally inadequate to the present requirements, and it has to be constantly enlarged. The wharf is in close proximity to the Customs' House, and is provided with steam-cranes and

other appliances for loading and discharging cargo. There are often several vessels lying alongside the wharf, loading and unloading at the same time. The whole place, in fact, is a hive of industry, and business men thrive accordingly. Considering the great saving of manual labour effected by the employment of hydraulic and steam power, it is somewhat surprising that none of the spirited landing agents have seen fit to avail themselves of either in their spacious warehouses. The hardening of a road 20 feet in width from the Point to Durban has greatly stimulated building operations in its vicinity, and entirely changed the aspect of the long range of sand-hills stretching between those places. A part of this area is known as Addington, a highly attractive and growing residential suburb. It is, as it were, the connecting link between Durban and the Point. The sand-hills vary in size, and are now plentifully besprinkled with residences of a superior class, rising one above another, in the midst of prettily laid-out fruit and flower gardens.

There is a well-to-do air of affluence about all these abodes. Many of the persons who own or occupy them are in circumstances of comparative ease, if not independence, whilst numberless pretty and cosy-looking wood and iron cottages, with trellised verandahs and tasteful gardens, belong to artisans, and are such as quite to negate the notion of 'hard times' being experienced by them. Those at, or near, the top of the hills are somewhat exposed to wind and weather; but the splendid views of the shipping, &c., obtained from them will to some extent compensate for this drawback.

The Berea is a fashionable and salubrious suburb to the west of Durban, and overlooking the town. Its eastern slopes are richly wooded, and are embellished with the fast multiplying residences of merchants and other folk. Some of these residences are of palatial dimensions, and occupy situations of great natural beauty. They are mostly separated and distinct from each other, while some are sheltered, not only by the hill itself, but also by umbrageous trees. These elegant residences, environed by large flower gardens, fruit and pleasure grounds, attest the cultivated taste and opulence of the inhabitants. The roads on the Berea are spacious and good. From the one running along the ridge of the hill, which is about 300 feet above sea-level, magnificent views of the surrounding scenery are obtained.

The Camp, or Military Barracks, where forty years ago Captain Smith was entrenched when the Boers took possession of the block-house at the Point, is situate on the 'ordnance

reserve,' which flanks Durban on the north. It is a plain brick building, but it answers present requirements. It has frequently been suggested that the Barracks should be removed to a high plateau behind the Berea, and in all probability this suggestion will ere long be acted on.

The Cemeteries are at the western end of the town. They occupy an area of about 17 acres, and are beautified with monuments and gravestones of various kinds. They are much frequented on Sundays, and many of the inscriptions placed by the hand of affection over the dead are worth remembering.

Durban possesses three clubs—the *Durban*, the *Natal*, and the *Athenæum*. They are commodious and well-appointed. The two first-named are most centrally situated. The advantages of respectable clubs are so well known that no necessity exists for mentioning them. Admission is, of course, by ballot. The secretaries will give full information concerning their respective clubs.

Where there are so many good hotels, the new arrival will experience little difficulty in selecting one to suit his or her means. Charges, of course, vary according to the locality and extent of accommodation required; but it is usual to make a reduction of terms to those whose sojourn is protracted. Excellent boarding-house accommodation may be had at reasonable rates in different parts of the town. Some private families in the town and suburbs also take lodgers. Sometimes Durban has been so thronged with visitors that the hotels and lodging-houses could not afford sufficient accommodation, and many people had to take up their quarters in tents. This has, as might be anticipated, caused increased activity in building operations, and there is not much likelihood that anyone will be unable to find suitable lodgings now. By telegraphing from Port Elizabeth or East London, apartments may generally be secured in any of the hotels named below.¹ Those persons who, on account of the expense, or for other reasons, prefer to camp out, rather than go to any hotel or lodging-house, will find no difficulty in buying ready-made tents of every description, and of

¹ Principal Hotels:—‘Alexandra Hotel,’ Point; ‘Royal Hotel,’ Smith Street, facing Town Gardens; ‘Marine Hotel,’ Gardiner Street; ‘Belgrave Hotel,’ east end of West Street; ‘George Hotel,’ east end of West Street; ‘Central Hotel,’ at the corner of Chancery Lane, West Street; ‘Prince of Wales,’ Smith Street (west); ‘European Hotel,’ at the corner of Grey and West Streets; ‘Imperial Hotel,’ at the corner of Grey and West Streets; ‘Phoenix Hotel,’ West Street (west).

good quality. Those who are not fastidious, and who wish to be saving at first, could easily convert some packing-cases into cupboards, tables, seats, &c., while bedding, cooking utensils, &c., can be procured at any upholsterer's or ironmonger's. It may be added that any person losing personal property and desiring to recover possession of same should go to the Police-station and state full particulars. On proving title to it, and payment of expenses (if any) incurred, the owner will receive it, if found. The Police-station is in West Street, within some minutes' walk of the railway station; it will easily be distinguished by its isolation.

Turning from the town to the colony, the writer cannot do better than quote the following from a Government Report, published some time since; but the account is as truthful now as it was when first written, and it shows also the capabilities of the district.

'This division, D'Urban (or Durban, as it is now called), is well adapted to sustain a dense population. It includes the Bay of Natal, and the township of D'Urban, the port of the district. Cotton has been planted in the vicinity of the bay, and yields superior and abundant produce. Sugar-cane and indigo plants thrive there as well as elsewhere in the district, and the coffee-tree has been lately introduced, and grows well. . . . The soil is rich, and favourable to the growth of barley, oats, &c., as well as beans, and most descriptions of vegetables. (Beans form a valuable article of export to the Mauritius.) The land throughout is well supplied with water, but in its present state unfit for pasture land. It appears to us desirable that the land should be laid out in small lots, in order to encourage the settler as much as possible to cultivate it. At present, only the small Zulu cattle can be kept there, and those not to advantage.

'With the exception of mangrove, scarcely any timber adapted for building purposes is found in this division; in a few localities valuable waggon-wood is obtained.'

Of Pietermaritzburg the same Report said: 'It is a good grazing and a superior agricultural division; it is abundantly watered, and capable of irrigation to almost any extent. Vegetation is very rapid in this as in all the other districts, and consequently the grass grows rank and strong, so as generally only to admit of the larger description of stock, such as cattle and horses, being depastured upon it with advantage in summer. Valuable timber, adapted for building purposes and furniture, grows in several parts of this division.' And of the adjoining

division of Umvoti, the writer declares that it 'comprises some of the finest land in this part of South Africa, either for grazing or agricultural purposes; the capabilities of the south-eastern portion of it are similar to those of D'Urban; but cattle thrive better, and the upper portion of it is considered much more favourable to the grazier than the division of Pietermaritzburg; it is abundantly supplied with water, and some good timber is found upon it.'

CHAPTER XII.

TABLE OF DISTANCES AND ELEVATIONS.

Meteorology—Mean Temperature—Mean Rainfall—Mean Temperature in the Shade—Meteorology of Natal—Rainfall in Natal—Distances and Elevations.

THE following tables are taken from Observations recorded at the Natal Botanic Gardens,¹ Durban, Port Natal, extending over a period of eight years, 1873–80:—

Average of Mean Temperature for each month and season and for the year. Shade.

Month	Degrees in Shade	Season	Degrees in Shade	Year	Degrees in Shade
August .	63·99	} Spring .	66·11	—	—
September .	65·98				
October .	68·37				
November .	70·98	} Summer ² .	72·88	Mean Temperature Annual . . .	69·01
December .	73·13				
January .	74·54				
February .	75·26	} Autumn .	73·16	—	—
March .	74·20				
April .	70·03				
May .	66·74	} Winter .	63·87	—	—
June .	62·80				
July .	62·06				

¹ Approximate position, Lat. S. 29° 56', Long. E. 31° 5'. Height above sea-level, 150 feet. The instruments are all by Negretti and Zambra. The anemometer is Robinson's, improved by Negretti and Zambra. The ozonometer is Schoenbein's. To the barometer readings 10 of an inch is added for the elevation, and the temperatures are corrected according to the certificates with each instrument. Observations at 9 A.M. and 3 P.M. daily.

² The mean temperature of summer, computed according to the observations of the seven consecutive seasons, 1873–4, 1874–5, 1875–6, 1876–7, 1877–8, 1878–9, and 1879–80, differs slightly from the above, being 72·90°.

Average of Mean Rainfall for each month and season, and for the year.

Month	Inches	Season	Inches	Year	Inches
August .	1.485	} Spring .	7.808	—	—
September .	2.619				
October .	3.504				
November .	7.050	} Summer ¹ .	17.933	Mean Rainfall Annual .	42.601
December .	5.605				
January .	5.278				
February .	5.105	} Autumn .	13.000	—	—
March .	5.175				
April .	2.720				
May .	1.412	} Winter .	4.360	—	—
June .	1.462				
July .	1.486				

¹ The mean (total) rainfall for the three months of summer, computed according to the observations of the consecutive seasons, 1873-4, 1874-5, 1875-6, 1876-7, 1877-8, 1878-9, and 1879-80, differs slightly from the above, being 17.686 inches, and making the (total) mean annual rainfall 42.654 inches.

The Mean Range of Temperature (in the shade), being the mean between the greatest daily range and the least daily range recorded in each month, for each month and season, and for the year.

Month	Degrees in Shade	Season	Degrees in Shade	Year	Degrees in Shade
August .	19.81	} Spring .	18.52	—	—
September .	18.00				
October .	17.75				
November .	17.00	} Summer ¹ .	17.67	Mean Daily Range of Temperature Annual .	18.36
December .	18.75				
January .	17.25				
February .	15.69	} Autumn .	18.00	—	—
March .	19.37				
April .	18.94				
May .	18.62	} Winter .	19.27	—	—
June .	19.69				
July .	19.50				

¹ The mean daily range of shade temperature for the three months of summer, computed according to the observations of the consecutive seasons, 1873-4, 1874-5, 1875-6, 1876-7, 1877-8, 1878-9, and 1879-80, differs slightly from the above, being 17.71°, and making the annual mean 18.38°.

METEOROLOGY OF NATAL.—From observations recorded at the Natal Botanic Gardens, Port Natal, extending over a period of eight years, 1873-80.

The difference of the mean temperature of the warmest month (February) and the coldest month (July) was $18^{\circ}20'$, and the mean difference of successive months was only $2^{\circ}20'$. The maximum variation of monthly mean temperature was $6^{\circ}4'$, and the minimum $0^{\circ}10'$. The mean pressure of the atmosphere was 30.14 inches. The maximum elevation of the barometer was 30.73 inches; the greatest depression 29.21 inches, giving 1.52 inches as the extreme range. January, being the month of lowest pressure, showed a mean of 30.024 inches; and June, the month of highest pressure, a mean of 30.276 inches; so that the range of monthly mean pressure was 0.251 inches; the mean monthly range, as deduced from the recorded observations, being 0.65 inches. The mean annual rainfall amounted to 42.901 inches. This quantity of water was divided over the periods of the years as in Table 2. The weight of vapour in a cubic foot of air was 6.68 grains on the average. The mean percentage of humidity of the air was 77.281. The mean weight of one cubic foot of air, in grains, was 515.349. Of ozone the daily mean recorded was 2.92 on the average. The mean pressure of the wind was 3.21. Over the whole period of eight years—observations being recorded at 9 A.M. and 3 P.M.—the north-east winds exceeded the south-west winds in the proportion of 1,868 to 1,543, or nearly as six to five, exactly as 1.211 : 1.000 or 1.000 : 0.826; and the south-west winds exceeded the north-west winds as 610 to 443, i.e., nearly as eleven to eight; exactly as 1.377 : 1.000 or 1.000 : 0.726. North-east winds prevailed most in the spring months, from August to October (inclusive), and again separately in January and March; and south-west winds are of most frequent occurrence in the autumn months, between December and March (inclusive). It is evident, however, that as the Botanic Gardens are sheltered by the Berea, and the data as to wind are recorded only in the morning and afternoon, instead of at 9 A.M. and 9 P.M., the anemometric results are not quite satisfactory.

Table showing the actual Rainfall in each month during a period of eight years, observed at the Natal Botanic Gardens.

Months	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880
	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.
January	4.8	7.17	3.64	5.37	5.18	2.67	3.97	7.02
February	2.93	4.2	3.80	6.40	8.07	5.05	3.78	7.12
March	8.93	9.12	6.06	2.48	1.94	2.72	3.20	2.98
April	2.06	3.74	2.11	4.17	2.31	2.11	3.19	4.55
May	.62	1.17	.22	.30	.04	3.34	2.72	3.20
June	—	2.66	2.05	2.03	.90	1.89	1.93	.82
July	.94	.49	5.57	.94	1.16	.24	1.87	—
August	2.41	1.40	.27	1.25	.87	.32	3.17	.99
September	2.64	1.54	5.56	4.45	2.12	.14	3.93	.89
October	3.61	1.86	3.35	1.70	6.89	1.31	5.00	5.20
November	6.26	7.85	16.62	3.84	3.29	4.80	3.77	8.70
December	7.01	13.82	5.53	2.29	2.88	3.65	3.99	6.16
Total fall	42.21	55.02	54.78	35.22	35.65	28.24	40.52	47.63

The average number of days in the year on which more or less rain falls is greater in England, where it amounts to 156, than in Natal, which has only 129 rainy days in the year. The heaviest rainfall within 24 hours was 8.57 inches.

Table showing the Mean Temperature in each month during a period of eight years, observed at the Natal Botanic Gardens.

Months	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880
	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.
January	74.5	75.5	75.3	73.82	73.87	77.03	73.80	72.5
February	76.2	73.7	72.7	75.31	76.26	78.42	74.76	74.7
March	75.1	73.2	74.0	72.30	75.64	75.29	74.17	73.9
April	70.6	70.7	70.0	69.15	71.01	70.8	70.41	67.6
May	66.1	64.3	67.5	65.69	68.88	68.53	67.35	65.6
June	63.0	62.01	63.1	62.43	63.1	63.43	63.86	61.5
July	63.2	60.7	61.7	62.14	62.40	62.90	61.32	62.1
August	63.6	63.2	64.1	65.22	65.38	62.72	63.90	63.8
September	65.9	64.8	64.8	66.81	65.28	67.58	67.30	65.4
October	68.8	68.5	66.8	67.11	67.80	71.37	68.25	68.3
November	70.2	71.7	70.8	69.75	70.71	73.45	70.90	70.3
December	72.6	72.3	74.2	73.51	73.75	72.56	72.60	73.5

Table showing the Extreme Range in each month, during a period of eight years, of the thermometer, observed at the Natal Botanic Gardens.

Months	1873		1874		1875		1876		1877		1878		1879		1880		Extreme Range in each Month							
	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880
January	99	66	91	62	89	63	91	60	89	60	102	64	92	55	100	59	Dg.	Dg.	Dg.	Dg.	Dg.	Dg.	Dg.	Dg.
February	91	62	89	58	89	63	89	60	93	64	94	65	93	59	87	64	29	31	26	29	29	29	29	34
March	89	60	89	59	87	61	89	52	88	62	94	55	89	60	90	55	29	30	26	37	26	39	29	35
April	87	52	85	57	94	55	83	55	90	53	86	53	86	49	84	50	35	28	39	28	37	33	37	34
May	85	48	83	47	83	52	84	46	94	50	89	53	85	50	81	50	37	36	31	38	44	36	35	31
June	81	45	76	47	78	50	85	45	84	45	84	48	81	45	84	42	36	29	28	40	39	36	36	42
July	78	46	79	44	77	47	79	42	77	47	93	45	79	48	80	45	32	35	30	37	30	48	31	35
August	79	45	81	47	82	45	93	46	88	47	89	49	80	50	83	46	34	34	37	47	41	40	30	37
September	83	47	86	49	99	46	80	49	84	48	84	49	82	53	80	49	36	37	53	31	36	35	29	31
October	92	54	85	52	82	50	84	50	86	53	102	53	82	53	84	51	38	33	32	34	33	49	29	33
November	85	57	90	54	87	56	87	52	86	56	95	58	86	57	90	55	28	36	31	35	30	37	28	35
December	106	54	87	59	87	57	102	56	90	60	88	59	86	58	88	54	52	28	30	46	30	29	27	34

Table showing the Extreme Range in each month, during a period of eight years, of the barometer, observed at the Natal Botanic Gardens.

Months	1873		1874		1875		1876		1877		1878		1879		1880		Extreme Range in each Month							
	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	Highest	Lowest	1873	1874	1875	1876	1877	1878	1879	1880
January	30.11	29.63	30.395	29.885	30.185	29.865	30.28	29.62	33.30	29.78	30.29	29.82	30.88	29.67	30.35	29.62	.42	.51	.330	.46	.52	.47	.71	.78
February	30.31	29.79	30.425	29.805	30.245	29.905	30.29	29.71	30.19	29.60	30.35	29.82	30.30	29.78	30.25	29.74	.52	.620	.340	.51	.59	.63	.52	.51
March	30.35	29.86	30.195	29.825	30.385	29.785	36.49	29.63	30.36	29.77	30.390	29.83	30.35	29.87	30.28	29.76	.50	.370	.600	.86	.59	.56	.45	.52
April	30.43	29.79	30.310	29.820	30.445	29.745	30.60	29.87	30.46	29.77	30.45	29.89	30.87	29.88	30.32	29.70	.64	.480	.700	.73	.69	.46	.69	.62
May	30.39	29.21	30.430	29.830	30.515	29.355	30.49	29.23	30.39	29.68	30.490	29.90	30.430	29.87	30.46	29.98	1.18	.60	1.160	.56	.71	.59	.55	.53
June	30.49	29.86	30.66	29.96	30.525	29.995	30.55	29.97	30.53	29.93	30.50	29.87	30.42	29.91	30.71	29.66	.63	.70	.530	.68	.60	.63	.51	.85
July	30.50	29.21	30.660	29.620	30.595	30.055	30.64	29.92	30.58	29.99	30.58	29.84	30.49	29.85	30.56	29.97	1.29	1.04	.540	.71	.59	.74	.64	.59
August	30.57	29.82	30.60	29.84	30.665	29.775	30.67	29.75	30.55	29.99	30.62	29.81	30.540	29.910	30.490	29.840	.75	.76	.890	.92	.56	.81	.63	.64
September	30.53	29.88	30.72	29.71	30.485	29.785	30.48	29.81	30.61	29.88	30.56	29.73	30.52	29.83	30.46	29.83	.64	1.02	.700	.88	.73	.83	.89	.63
October	30.49	29.63	30.35	29.82	36.605	29.775	30.64	29.81	30.65	29.69	30.31	29.64	30.47	29.73	30.43	29.99	.80	.63	.880	.76	.96	.77	.74	.44
November	30.42	29.68	30.41	29.72	30.345	29.825	30.47	29.73	30.50	29.66	30.42	29.82	30.29	29.60	30.41	29.83	.74	.69	.520	.74	.84	.69	.61	.58
December	30.40	29.61	30.28	29.82	30.285	29.895	30.27	29.61	30.36	29.79	30.28	29.60	30.22	29.64	30.35	29.82	.80	.46	.390	.62	.67	.68	.55	.52

¹ From Durban to Pretoria (Transvaal) is 350 miles; to Potchefstroom, from 365 to 400 miles; to Diamond Fields, 450 miles.

² Thornville is 8 miles from Pietermaritzburg; from Pietermaritzburg to Greytown (village), Lat. 29° 3', Long. 30° 35', is 50 miles; from Greytown to York (village) is 23 miles; from Pietermaritzburg to Kremer's, Lower Umgeni Falls, is 12 miles; to Garbutt's, Sterk Spruit, 20 miles; to Seven Oaks, 32 miles; from Pietermaritzburg to Howick is 12 to 14 miles; to Little Umlazi, 13; to Richmond, 25; to the Umkomanzi, 39; to Jäeps, 57; to the Umzimkula, 71. The distance, by rail, from Durban to Pietermaritzburg is about 71 miles; to Verulam (by road or rail), about 19; to the Tongaat River, 26; to the Umvati River Drift, 43; to Nonoti, 49; to Sinquasi, 56; to Tugela, 60.

³ Lidgetton, from Howick, 20 miles.

⁴ From Curry's Hotel to Sunday's River is 12 miles, and to Ladysmith, 36. (This township is 3,353 feet above sea-level.)

⁵ From Curry's Hotel, 12 to 16 miles.

⁶ Weenen is eight miles from Estcourt.

⁷ From Tugela to (Grey's) Blaauw Krantz is 8 to 10 miles; to Estcourt (Bushman's River), from 22 to 24; to Weston, 34; to Taylor's, 42; to Newcastle (4,400 feet above sea-level) 85 or 85; to Curry's Hotel from 54 to 60; to Milge, 67.

⁸ From Sandspuit to Harrysmith (village beyond the Quahhlamba Mountain), 35 miles.

Miles		Miles	
Durban to Umlazi	12	Durban to Bush Kraal	5
" Illovo	8	" Lawson's	5
" Amanzimhate	5	" Injani's	5
" Umkomanzi	10	" Stuart's	8
" Umzinto	18	" Kimanti	3
" Brabh's Mill	5	" High Flats	5
" Crocker's	5	" Hancock's	12

From Hancock's to Kolstad (Griqualand East), 65 miles.

The above figures are only approximately correct; for, in the measurement of distances and heights of places in the colony travellers differ considerably.

CHAPTER XIII.

AREA OF LAND UNDER CULTIVATION.

Area of Land under Cultivation—Value of Land and Buildings—Acreage Cultivated by Europeans—Amount and Variety of Stock raised—Corporation Land Sales—Terms of Land Purchase, &c.

THE following table is valuable in giving the total acreage and valuation of the colony of Natal, 1877.

Division	Area			Land			Building		
	A.	R.	P.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Umgini	1,218,912	3	38	639,144	5	0	78,424	12	4
Upper Umkomazi	844,439	2	8	129,064	16	8	32,885	10	0
Ixopo	371,982	1	9.42	74,567	14	0	6,940	0	0
Umvoti	1,225,328	2	15.75	271,013	7	0	40,915	0	0
Weenen	1,217,959	0	18.39	255,013	7	0	40,630	10	0
Borough of Maritzburg .	27,080	1	33.26	590,864	10	0	410,933	0	0
Borough of Durban . . .	1,082	2	26.05	302,845	16	8	412,529	0	0
County of Durban	832,763	0	7.33	315,899	14	2	106,648	0	0
County									
Maritzburg total	4,405,701	0	2.82	1,759,167	19	8	600,738	12	4
Klip River	2,014,284	0	8	451,233	16	0	72,079	0	0
Victoria	811,720	1	5.19	744,250	9	6	214,075	12	1
Alexandra	278,908	0	8.8	134,818	0	0	33,410	0	0
Alfred	171,801	3	32.30	35,919	10	0	3,215	0	0
Durban total	832,845	2	38.38	618,745	10	10	519,177	0	0
Grand total	8,016,261	0	4.77	3,744,135	6	0	1,442,695	4	5

'The breadth of land in the occupation of Europeans from which crops were reaped in 1879 is set down in the last Blue-book at 53,907½ acres. In 1878 the acreage under the same head was 45,115½ acres. Maize and sugar-cane continue to be the principal articles cultivated, and the county of Pietermaritzburg and the Quanda division of the county of Victoria take the lead as usual—Maritzburg county in maize, and Quanda division in sugar. The total breadth under maize cultivation in Maritzburg county in 1879 was 21,309 acres, and the total number of acres under sugar-cane in Quanda division in the same year was 5,005, being a decrease of 742 acres on the acreage of the previous year. The county of Alexandra takes second place in

1879 with 883 acres of sugar-cane, against 1,050 acres in 1878; followed by the county of Durban with 765 acres in 1879, against 1,246 acres in 1878. The other returns of land under sugar-cane are from the Tugela division of Victoria county, where there are 532 acres; from the Upper Umkomazi division, in which there are 7 acres; and from the Umgeni division of Maritzburg county, where there are 4 acres. The total number of acres cultivated with sugar-cane in 1879 was 7,146, against 8,702 acres in 1878, being a decrease of 1,556 acres. The quantity of sugar manufactured in the colony during 1879 was 8,450½ tons, against 8,603 tons in the previous year. With regard to coffee, the Quanda division takes the lead in 1879 with 329 acres under cultivation, followed by the Tugela division with 214½ acres, the county of Alexandra with 101 acres, and the county of Durban with 81 acres—the total number of acres under coffee cultivation in 1879 being 746½. Quoting further from the Blue-book returns, we find that the *crops standing* in December 1879 represented 16,492 acres under sugar-cane, and 356 acres under coffee in the Quanda division; 18,282 acres of maize, 283 acres of oats, 1,002½ acres of barley, and 602½ acres of beans, in the Umgeni division of Pietermaritzburg county; 1,611½ acres of maize and 116 acres of oats in the Upper Umkomazi division; 2,378 acres of sugar-cane and 98 acres of coffee in the county of Durban; 95 acres of sugar-cane and 546 acres of coffee in the Tugela division; 4,979 acres of sugar-cane and 74 acres of coffee in Alexandra county; and 18 acres of coffee in Alfred county. The total number of acres in crop at the end of 1872 was 64,898 acres, and the total number of acres of cultivated land not in crop 11,845½. The native crops standing in December of the same year were 143,923½ acres, of which 96,336½ were maize, 33,442½ kafir corn, and 217 sugar-cane.

It is estimated that there were 460,353 sheep in the colony in 1879, all the property of European farmers; and the quantity of wool returned as produced during the same year is 1,206,006 lbs. During the same year 219,004 lbs. of butter were made, and 246,799 lbs. of bacon were cured; the Upper Umkomazi division heading the list with 69,180 lbs., closely followed by the Umgeni division of Maritzburg county with 68,910 lbs., and the Ixopo division with 61,600 lbs. Weenen county comes next with 24,699 lbs., the remaining districts of the colony being a long way behind in this industry. Quoting further from the Blue-book returns, we find that in 1879 the number of horses in possession of the European population is

set down at 14,754, with 8,915 as belonging to natives; 137,716 head of horned cattle as belonging to the white population, 270,469 being owned by the natives; whilst pigs belonging to Europeans are returned at 7,009, Angora goats at 50,789, other goats at 28,819, mules at 1,122, donkeys at 319, and sheep (not wool-bearing) at 1,821. In addition to horses and cattle, the natives possessed, in 1879, 24,024 sheep (not wool-bearing), 140,513 goats, and 4,354 pigs. Wool-bearing sheep almost cease to appear in the returns of native stock, only 25 animals being returned for the whole of the colony.—*Natal Mercury*, January 3, 1881.

CORPORATION LAND SALES.

It is customary for the municipal corporations to advertise, and put up to sale by public auction, land and leaseholds of land. An upset price is fixed, which varies according to locality; and the highest bidder becomes proprietor on complying with the conditions of sale, which are unexceptionably good. When a purchase is made, it is usual for part of the purchase-money to be paid on the day of sale, payment of the balance extending over different periods, payable in equal instalments, a mortgage being passed as security of payment of the deferred instalments. Interest on the amount of deferred payment is at the rate of 8 per cent. per annum. Such leaseholds are, subject to the approval of the corporations, transferable. An erven is about 103 feet frontage by 150 feet in depth. Where possible, it is advisable to put the whole of the purchase-money down at the time of purchase, as the colonial rates of interest are high, and the cost of mortgage bonds, stamps, cancelling, &c., is thus saved.

CHAPTER XIV.

NATAL AS A FIELD FOR EMIGRATION.

Natal—Summary of Advantages—Class of Men who Prosper there—Capital required—Staple Produce—Corn—Maize—Sugar—Stock—Profits to be realised—Selection of Land—A Field for Capitalists as for Labourers—The Class of People who Succeed—Ornamental People not required—Wages—No Poor-houses—Hospitals—Government Regulations for the disposal of Crown Lands—Rent of Pastoral Lands—Assisted Passages—Emigration Circulars and Forms and Directions.

THE chief advantages of Natal as a field for emigration may be summed up *seriatim* as follows:—

1. Its favourable position in a geographical point of view, as it is but little more than one-half the distance of Australia from England.

2. A climate equal to that of any other British colony, and superior to most European countries.

3. A fertile soil, which can be easily and cheaply cultivated.

4. The country is well wooded and well watered, and hence has great facilities for inland development.

5. An ample supply of native and coolie labour.

6. Good roads and railway facilities.

7. A ready market for produce.

8. Social advantages, and all the amenities of civilisation; and, above all, security for life and property.

The class of men chiefly required in this colony are practical agriculturists possessing energy and enterprise, together with a small capital of from (say) 500*l.* to 2,000*l.*—men who can and will utilise and economise their own resources. For such men there is every facility for carrying on farming successfully. Both the climate and the soil of the midlands and uplands are favourable to the growth of all sorts of grain, such as Indian corn, wheat, oats, barley, rye, and other cereals, as well as the different varieties of pulse, and all descriptions of root crops. The coastlands are adapted for the cultivation of semi-tropical produce, such as sugar-cane, coffee, arrowroot, cotton, tobacco, &c. All kinds of vegetables are also grown, together with such fruit as bananas, peaches, oranges, lemons, guavas, papaws, mulberries, pine apples, &c. The sweet potato, or 'Poor Man's

Friend,' as it is sometimes called, also commands a considerable portion of the agriculturist's attention. European potatoes are grown, but do not seem to answer quite as well. The cultivation of most of these articles, especially those for which there is a good local demand, yields a tolerably fair profit. But from several causes it is doubtful whether either coffee or cotton answer well. In the cultivation and manufacture of sugar, the chief coastland product, which for quality is at present unexcelled by that of any other country, fortunes have been lost and made; but it is a striking illustration of what can be accomplished by perseverance that, in the presence of almost insuperable obstacles, the quantity of sugar exported during the financial year 1881-82 was not less than 11,705 tons, valued at 215,191*l.*, and, as more than 7,146 acres are devoted to the culture of sugar-cane, the home consumption must be considerable.

Upon this subject Colonel Mitchell, in his last report, states that 80,992 acres were under cultivation by Europeans in 1880-81 and 216,493 by natives, the corresponding acreage for the year 1879 having been 53,907 and 152,703 respectively, whilst for 1878 the acreage amounted to 45,115 and 182,463, exclusive of the lowlands of Pietermaritzburg and Durban. These figures show a steady progress, notwithstanding the check given to native cultivation during the year 1879, in consequence of 22,000 native agriculturists having been engaged in military service.

Improved machinery amongst the Europeans, and the extensive introduction of ploughs amongst the agriculturists and the natives, are instrumental in bringing year by year a larger acreage under cultivation.

The native system of cultivation is a wasteful one, since they take no pains to manure the land, and when one plot is exhausted they abandon that and remove to another district, where the same exhausting system is carried out. The destruction of trees also is a matter of regret; but it is confidently hoped now that the political disturbances have cleared away, the recommendations of the Commission which sat upon this question during 1878-79 will be carried out.

'Maize,' continues Colonel Mitchell, 'was, as in former years, the staple crop of the colony, the native cultivation being almost entirely confined to that and the Kafir corn (*amabele*: a kind of millet). By the Europeans oats, hay, and potatoes are grown in large quantities. The cultivation of coffee shows signs of

revival, and the sugar-cane crop of the coast districts has nearly doubled during the year under report, the quantity of sugar made having been 8,450 tons in 1879, and 16,143 during 1880. The prices of all sorts of farm produce did not fall to the extent that was expected, much capital was invested in farms, and I confidently look forward to being able to report a considerable advance in the agriculture of the colony during the year 1881.'

It must be borne in mind that the foregoing report was written at a time of unusual agricultural depression, through the unsettled condition of the country at large. Yet, even with that drawback, the agricultural prospects of the colony were progressive. With settled prospects, increased development of the internal and external resources, there is practically no limit to the prosperity of the colony.

At present the margin of profit on agricultural produce has not, in the majority of cases, been large. This is, no doubt, mainly due to the fact that high rates of interest on borrowed capital have to be paid. As a matter of fact, most of the sugar-planters are sadly hampered by debt: this is invariably the case with planters in most colonies. When these debts have been wiped off or reduced there is every reason to believe that there will be no more profitable branch of colonial industry than that of sugar-cane growing.

Of late years central sugar-mills have been established, so that planters with a limited amount of capital can now engage in this enterprise. It is doubtful, however, whether the present acreage can be largely and profitably increased. It may be mentioned that for the successful development of this industry planters are largely dependent upon Asiatic labour. Beet-root has been successfully grown, but has never claimed much attention. The cultivation of arrowroot is not so extensive as it should be. This is not because it is not remunerative in itself, but because other crops are considered to be more so. The mulberry tree grows without any extra care, but sericulture is utterly neglected. The mean yield per acre of crops which are profitably grown in Natal may be gathered from the Appendices to this volume. These returns are based upon official documents, and hence can be verified. The writer would suggest the advisability of an intending settler or emigrant discounting the returns to, say, 20 per cent., to allow for bad seasons, losses, and other unforeseen contingencies. It is always better to under- rather than over-estimate the capabilities of a country,

since vicissitudes may from time to time arise. This discount will afford a perfectly reliable basis of calculation. Farmers, however, should not confine their attention to any one production. It answers best generally to pursue a mixed system of husbandry, for which the colony is excellently adapted, while not losing sight of the suitability of the country for pastoral purposes. Stock farming undoubtedly pays remarkably well. Horses, cattle, and sheep do not require to be carefully housed, or fed with artificial food, as in England, even in mid-winter and in the higher parts of the colony. This is a most important consideration. In the daytime the cattle roam in the open *veldt*, and at night they are put into a *kraal*, or cattle-fold. It is usual, however, to build a shelter-house of a rude description at one side of this enclosure for them to go under during the heavy summer rains or winter snow-storms. The expenditure involved in providing such a shelter need not infringe heavily on the settler's means at the outset, for it ought not to cost over 5*l.*, while the *kraal* itself need not cost more than 10*l.* Horses and cattle are much cheaper in Natal than in England, and answer admirably for colonial requirements.¹ Many of the horses subsist entirely on the nutritious grasses which grow in the *veldt* in rank luxuriance, and are not put inside of a stable all the year round. As one writer says: 'By judicious crosses of other breeds with our own, some settlers have produced an excellent class of well-bred, useful horse. The best stock of the colony has been produced chiefly by crossing with English thoroughbreds, of which several have been sent out, whilst the breeders are encouraged by the offer of prizes. *These crossbreeds are very hardy, and capable of performing long journeys on poor keep without suffering any ill effects.* . . . When horses are first brought into the country they become weak and sickly, but after being acclimatised they are most valuable and enduring.' Sheep farming pays well, but is confined to the midlands and uplands. A large number of pigs are raised in the colony. They thrive well, fatten easily, and require no extra care, while the profits that accrue are more than most people would imagine. Improved breeds would pay handsomely. The domestication of ostriches also promises to be exceedingly profitable.

¹ It may be remarked, however, that the dairy qualities of Natal cows cannot be praised. They rarely yield more than a pint of milk at a time, consequently very little butter is made in the colony. The breed of these cows might, however, be very well improved by the importation of superior stock.

On this branch of industry Colonel Mitchell states, in the report which I have freely alluded to:—‘The keeping of ostriches is a new industry in Natal. It has been so successfully pursued in the Cape Colony, and such very large profits have accrued from it, that many Natal colonists see in it a means of wealth, and during the early part of the year 1881 a large number of birds have been brought into Natal, and the enterprise is now being tried in different parts of the colony on a considerable scale.’ The value of the feathers exported for the years 1879 and 1880 was 9,410*l.* and 9,264*l.* respectively, the decrease in the latter year having been due to exceptional causes.

Most descriptions of domestic poultry do very well throughout the colony. Bee-keeping is neglected, although the clear skies and rich flora of Natal are peculiarly favourable for them.

As a rule, it is advisable for new arrivals possessing capital to make the fullest inquiries before embarking in any enterprise. Discretion is necessary as well as faith. Those persons contemplating agricultural pursuits will do well to ‘hide a wee’ before acquiring land by purchase.¹ Sometimes farms are worked to advantage on shares—one-half to landlord, one-half to tenant. Usually colonists are willing enough to impart the valuable results of their ripe, and too often dearly-bought, experience. But some emigrants are too proud either to ask for or receive such advice, thinking, perhaps, that in the most favourable cases it would not be wholly disinterested. Rather than be guided by the experience of colonists of mature judgment, who have succeeded in given localities, as to the proper times and seasons for ploughing and sowing, and laying down crops in proper succession, they rely on their own private judgment. Now this is sheer stupidity, and is almost sure to result in disappointment and loss of time and capital. In Natal, Natalian experience should not be despised by any. As a matter of policy it is always preferable that an immigrant who can afford

¹ There is, however, considerable difficulty in obtaining land in suitable positions on rental, one reason being that most of the owners bought their property, and made their improvements, with a view to permanent occupation themselves. Another reason is, that as a rule farming pays too well in Natal for many farms to be let. Moreover, the owners do not care to let their farms (with right of purchase at a stated price) to new-comers who may simply impoverish them. At the same time, few persons who mean to purchase will care to spend their money and their labour in improving another man’s property without having the right of purchase. Tenants on leaving are, however, as in England, entitled to the value of the crops in the ground.

to wait should look about for some months before settling down finally. This advice is applicable to all colonies, and of course implies the possession of sufficient capital to enable the settler to bide his time. The time and money thus lost will be amply repaid eventually by the gain of experience and avoidance of loss during the time the new comer is getting acclimatised.

In the selection of land it would likewise be as well for immigrants to consult a reliable land agent or auctioneer, otherwise they may be what is popularly and expressively styled 'buying a pig in a poke,' and the bargain hunter may find himself overreached. As there are at times old, half-exhausted estates and half worn-out machinery in the market, this advice is of more importance than may be imagined by some, especially at the commencement of a new life in a new world, where a first blunder may be fatal. At any rate, one cannot be too cautious. Inquiries relative to title-deeds may be made at the Registrar of Deeds' Office, Maritzburg. The writer is not aware whether the purchase of land carries with it the ownership of all minerals found below the surface, but he is inclined to think it does not.

New arrivals on travelling through the colony are surprised at the contrast between the neatly-trimmed hedges at home, where every bit of land is carefully utilised, and the high, scraggy hedges, wide ditches, and waste land even on the best managed Natal farms. This apparent slovenliness is accounted for from the fact that agricultural land is comparatively so cheap. In fact, arable land can be bought for literally little more than what would amount to the yearly rental in Great Britain. The prices vary from 10s. to 10l. per acre, according to extent, locality, character of the soil, its depth and quality. This varies considerably in different localities, as well as its suitability for given agricultural or pastoral purposes. Occasionally considerably higher prices than the above have been paid. No general rule can be laid down as to the average value of either agricultural or pastoral lands, though of course the further it is from the seaport the cheaper it is. It will be found, however, that there, as elsewhere, it is better to buy a smaller area of well-situated, good land at a high price than to purchase badly-located and inferior soil at a cheaper rate and a greater distance from the markets. Local auctioneers and land agents generally have farms for disposal which have not been put under cultivation, on account of the absence in former years of railway facilities. In Griqualand East, which is rapidly

increasing in value, land may be bought at reasonable prices. There are thousands who are unable to make farming answer in Britain, who in either Natal or Griqualand East would do remarkably well.¹

It must not be taken for granted that anyone can be transformed into a successful farmer in Natal or anywhere else, in fact, by merely going there. Experience, practical knowledge, and adaptability are requisite in that as in other callings. It is a fact, however, that many of the Natal farmers are now in a position vastly superior to that which they could have attained in England under the most favourable circumstances, and have started without that preliminary knowledge which is so essential; but it must be remembered that they had to pay dearly for the acquisition of such knowledge before they attained success, and also that in the days when they emigrated, twenty or thirty years ago, land, as well as labour, was cheaper than it is at present. Even practical agriculturists find that in commencing operations under new conditions in Natal they have much to learn. It is not in the nature of things that immediate success is to be expected; still, the chances are incalculably greater than in the mother-country. Those with sufficient means, and who are competent to do any sort of farm work, may be considered as independent from the date of entering into possession of a farm, unless, indeed, they have very grand ideas, and go beyond their means. This is suicidal policy: it is always wiser to allow a portion of one's soil to lie fallow than have one's title-deeds disfigured with red ink. By 'sufficient means' is meant enough money to pay their passage out, purchase land, live stock, implements, &c., build a comfortable domicile, with the necessary outbuildings, and to keep themselves for (say) twelve months after arrival, until, in fact, crops can be raised and some part of the outlay recouped.

In addition to agriculturists, capitalists with brains would certainly improve their position by going to Natal. There is always a comparatively large demand for money, which may be lent on first-class security. The normal rate of interest at which capital can be borrowed in the colony is 8 per cent. per annum.

¹ Until quite recently emigrants had to depend upon the local state of the market for procuring farms within the colony, but now the idle Crown lands of the colony are available. (See Rules and Regulations, pages 174-180.) For particulars as to the extent and locality of lands available for settlement emigrants should apply to the office of the Land and Emigration Board, Natal.

The banks often allow 5 per cent., and the legal rate is 6 per cent. Frequently money can be safely invested in small freeholds yielding from 8 to 15 per cent. In the event of acquiring land, not only would capitalists receive a higher rate of interest on their money, but the value of their investments would increase year by year. Owing to the present rapid enhancement in the value of land, as indicated by its ratable value, first mortgages on property estimated at one-third of the actual value of the land as represented by the purchase price may be considered perfectly safe. It is more than likely, however, that in the majority of cases the amount of the mortgage-bond is about one-third of the actual value of the mortgaged property at the date of its execution. Such mortgages yield fair rates of interest, and it is scarcely probable that landed property will decline so much in value from the purchase price that it will not be worth the sum advanced. As an indication of the improved value of land, it may be mentioned that a plot of ground in Durban, with a frontage of about twenty feet to West Street, which was bought for 250*l.* about ten years ago, was in 1876 yielding a yearly rental of 100*l.* In some cases land which twenty or thirty years ago was bought for hundreds of pounds is now worth as many thousands. Rural land has also considerably augmented in value. In fact, the predictions of the most sanguine optimists appear to be in process of verification.

There are a great number of people in England, with a competence, who are in search of health alone, or who are anxious to plant new homes, where their sons and daughters may commence the battle of life under more favourable auspices, and with less uncertainty as regards the future, than in the mother country. These might emigrate to Natal with some advantage. Blacksmiths, waggon-builders, engineers, stone-masons, bricklayers, carpenters, cabinet-makers, printers, plumbers, tailors, saddlers, harness-makers, and shoemakers do fairly well. A considerable proportion of those who arrived in the colony twenty or thirty years ago nearly penniless are at the present time not only apparently, but in reality, 'well-to-do,' and have all that independence which the possession of property naturally gives. Many artisans have a handsome sum to their credit at the bankers', and it is certainly quite possible for men who make the most of their opportunities, and who do not live up to the full extent of their income, which is altogether inexcusable, to secure themselves against want in old age, and also to make some little provision for their families. Skilled

labourers and mechanics are unquestionably much better off than their compeers in England, where in many cases it is difficult to keep soul and body together, and where, as a rule, workmen are doomed to life-long drudgery—where, in fact, ‘a man may keep his nose to the grindstone all his life, and die not worth a groat at last.’ There are many men in Natal now in positions of independence who, twenty years ago, were obliged to earn their bread by the sweat of their brows.

It is quite true that abroad, even in the most flourishing colonies, the paths are by no means strewn with roses. Settlers have had to contend with disappointments, discouragements, and reverses, and who in this world has not? They have had to suffer great privations and incur great risks, but they now have the satisfaction of knowing that although there, as everywhere else, there may be seasons of temporary depression, their property is steadily and surely rising in value with every year that passes, and this knowledge operates as a practical incentive to industry and thrift. Moreover, the strong lines of demarcation between one grade of society and another which prevail in England are non-existent in this colony. They are thawed under the genial influences of a southern sky, and those men who by their industry, skill, and shrewdness have risen from the humblest callings to positions of influence, are respected equally as much as those who have been precluded by birth from all the ordinary stimulus of exertion. Colonists are valued for what they are in point of character, or what they have done and will yet do, rather than on account of the social stratum in which birth or accident has placed them. But some people are never satisfied. They are ‘born to grumble as the sparks fly upward.’ ‘At Tibur they love Rome, at Rome Tibur.’ It is not unusual, therefore, even in Natal, to hear persons who in the mother country have been in adverse, if not wretched, circumstances, and who cannot gratify all their luxurious desires, complain bitterly of colonial life, although, as a rule, they are certainly better off there than they were before emigrating, and have brighter prospects before them. But for the most part these grumblers are constituted of men who went there with no practical knowledge, and not a single quality fitting them for such a life—men, in fact, who, with a disproportionate development of the organs of self-esteem and expectation, were especially unsuited for such a life. Neither a change of climate nor the most felicitous combination of circumstances can transform the constitution of their natures. Those who have within them.

selves the conditions essential to happiness and success need not be otherwise than contented in Natal, where everything conspires to make life perfectly enjoyable. It is not everyone, however, who can enjoy life under all or any circumstances. Gloomy, dissatisfied men and women, and those people who 'enjoy bad health' are not confined to any country or climate.

Were there, however, a large influx of British artisans and mechanics, the supply would be so much greater than the immediate demand that wages would be lowered, and many would not find employment. This possibility has to be carefully guarded against. Of butchers, bakers, grocers, drapers, ware-housemen, &c., few are required beyond what the colony can supply, and it may be as well to add that the supply of professional men, such as lawyers, artists, and literary men, and all who are unaccustomed to manual labour, is in excess of the demand.¹ Some pattern-makers, boiler-makers, and moulders are employed, but it is doubtful whether any are needed at the present time. Doubtless a few market gardeners, ploughmen, and field labourers would find remunerative employment, but there is a risk of over-supplying the market, since colonial agriculturists

¹ In his book *A Tour in South Africa*, Mr. J. J. Freeman has observed that : 'Those persons succeed best who come out *willing to do anything they can towards their own support*, and who are content to rise beyond their present condition just as soon as fair opportunities offer of doing so, *and not before*. Those who come proudly or pertinaciously *unwilling to work*, except in some particular direction, and demand high wages for all they do, or scarcely expect to be obliged to work at all, cannot rise out of poverty and difficulty. All who come willing to work and resolved to be industrious, sober, and economical, fail not in obtaining competency and comfort.' There is much truth in these remarks. There can be no question that, other things being equal, that man will succeed best who is most persevering, and who has the adaptability necessary to change from one occupation to another as exigencies may require. Those who have been accustomed to work in one groove all the days of their lives, and do not possess the power of adapting themselves to new and changing circumstances, should not emigrate. Neither should those persons who are deficient either in patience or energy, or who are unprepared to make the most of the unpromising circumstances by which they may happen to be surrounded, emigrate. Those, however, who have had the courage to break through the trammels of insular prejudice, and to leave their native land, with all its associations and relationships, are not likely to be daunted by inconveniences or obstacles, however formidable they may be. Of course, no one should be too particular as to the nature of his employment at first. As a general thing, loitering about the streets is very unprofitable. Although it is true that many of those who arrived in the colony nearly penniless twenty or thirty years ago succeeded best, no one should at the present time start without adequate means of subsistence for at least some months after their arrival.

employ native and coolie labourers almost exclusively, and also use labour-saving machinery, which is becoming very general as time goes on, on account of the uncertainty of native labour. The increasing wealth of the community is creating a limited demand for respectable European domestics, such as housemaids, nurses, and general servants, whose labours are less, and their wages higher, than in England, whilst they have more opportunities of raising themselves in the social scale. Single female domestic servants between fifteen and thirty-five years of age are chiefly in request, but a few newly-married couples would probably obtain suitable situations. As, however, an apt native, whose wages and rations do not exceed (say) 2*l.* per month, will wash, cook, clean, and do all kinds of housework, the demand for this kind of labour may be easily exceeded.

As regards wages, it is very difficult to give a fair average. Wages are fixed according to the workman's ability, and will be found to vary in different districts of the colony, and emigrants naturally make the most advantageous arrangements they can; but the Natal Government Emigration Circular, No. 2 (p. 183), may be assumed to give a fair idea of the present rates. It must be remembered, however, that the advantage offered by high rates of wages is more apparent than real, as the high rents and the prices of fuel, clothing, imported provisions, &c., goes a long way to absorb the difference in wages between English and colonial craftsmen. But still, in spite of the extra cost of living, the fact is indisputable that colonial workpeople are much better off than the corresponding class at home. They are better fed, better clothed, better lodged, and generally more intelligent. As the labour market is necessarily restricted, the rate of wages is therefore liable to fluctuate greatly. The safest course to pursue, after carefully weighing the conflicting evidence as to the advantages and disadvantages of the various new countries which claim their attention, is to make inquiries as to the requirements of the colony of Mr. Walter Peace, the Emigration Agent for Natal, 21 Finsbury Circus, London, E.C., who will answer all inquiries respecting free or assisted passages. Intended emigrants will receive every consideration and an immediate reply. Mr. Peace is a thorough man of business, who has succeeded well in his private enterprises in the colony, and he appears to fill the responsible position assigned him in an efficient manner. Since his appointment the stream of European emigration has steadily increased. The official returns for 1880 show that 874 emigrants were landed in the colony, either

partly or entirely at the cost of the Government; compared with 1879, this shows an increase of 567; the figures for 1881 were 942, against 889 in 1880. And it would appear that a further increase on the foregoing figures may be anticipated at the close of the current year. Without taking into account departmental expenses, the cost of introducing each emigrant is over 10*l.* 16*s.*, which, however, is soon actually repaid by his or her contribution to the Customs alone.¹

It is a matter of rare delicacy to touch upon, but the writer may perhaps be permitted to say that those faint-hearted beauties who are only fit to flutter in the sunshine of prosperity, however much they may sparkle with that brilliant small talk which is the charm of modern society, should not emigrate. Neither should those ladies emigrate who are unaccustomed to, or who naturally dislike, household work—'drudgery,' as it is sometimes called; for, just in proportion as a woman deems it derogatory to her position as a 'lady' to put her own hands to housework, just in that degree will difficulty be experienced in managing servants, be they Europeans, Indians, or Kafirs. Just as they are independent of the assistance of servants, just by so much will they not be disappointed. Besides, what sort of household economy can there be expected when the mistress is not endowed with the ordinary executive abilities of a domestic servant? In Natal many women, who may truly be described as ladies, are skilled in the simple labours of the household, and are therefore competent to properly supervise and direct the work of others, and anyone doing her own household work is considered none the less respectable and genteel, none the less a 'lady' on that account. The advance of society towards luxury may, however, change all that by-and-by. Meantime Natal is not a promising field for 'lady helps,' and at present the demand is more for the useful than the ornamental kind of women. On the other hand, it must be said that any woman who is prepared to take the rough with the smooth—and very often, temporarily at least, the former element predominates—will, in all probability, improve her social position by emigrating.

It has long been the custom for people at home to draft off to Natal and other colonies sons who chafe at the restraints imposed by parental authority, or relatives destitute of both energy and principle, and, perhaps, inflated with notions of

¹ It may here be noted that agreements entered into in England are null and void in Natal unless ratified and confirmed before a magistrate on the arrival of the parties in the colony.

their own superiority, think they will succeed better there than at home. This is a great mistake; for, as a rule, those who are careless of their associates or irregular in their habits when they have the benefit of a comfortable home and refined society, do not mend their fortunes by going to a colony, where there is, of course, less social restraint, but where certainly, as elsewhere, it behoves one to eschew vicious principles and profligate practices, and to be temperate, honest, and industrious. The Pauline doctrine, 'If any man will not work, neither shall he eat,' finds practical exemplification in Natal. Able-bodied and capable men must exert themselves mentally or physically, sometimes both, to acquire money for their support. Still, everyone able and willing to work can find ready employment. There is no premium to an indolent or dissolute life. There is no poor law for the pauperisation of the people, nor is mendicity encouraged by promiscuous charity. It is only under exceptional circumstances and temporarily that relief is given to the necessitous, and then it is not municipal or governmental.¹

¹ It may be as well here to state that the hospitals are maintained by the Government, and they are conducted very satisfactorily. Patients are admitted free, but those inmates who are possessed of means, or whose friends or relations are willing to pay, are charged reasonable rates for their maintenance. Many applicants (no less than 900 in five years) of different nationalities and creeds have been treated in these institutions. Relief of the destitute is administered by charitable organisations and benevolent societies; and, to prevent abuse, all such applications are previously thoroughly inquired into as to their causes, but no degrading 'labour test' is applied. Destitution is hardly ever known in the colony, and that awful dread of becoming helplessly pauperised, which is so common among the poorer classes at home, is never felt. This feeling is inseparable from the workhouse system of relief. That some people are, at times, in very reduced circumstances is beyond doubt, but no one there need 'die on the stones.' How many thousands there are in the mother country, who, it may be through no fault of their own, feel hunger gnawing at their vitals, and too often hastening the extinction of the 'expiring lamp of life.' In such a promising country, these hungry ones could have 'bread enough, and to spare!' Anyone who knows what a curse to England pawnbroking is, will not regret the absence from the colony of that benevolent being—'My Uncle.' In conclusion, it may be reiterated that unskilled and helpless labourers and clerks have but little chance in Natal. The men who can do well for themselves and the colony are clear-headed hard-working men—men not afraid of work or too proud to learn and conform to the conditions of a new life; in short, men with a 'backbone,' and who are in the possession of a moderate capital. For these success is certain. As a reliable outlet for the profitable employment of British industry and capital, Natal is one of the best of the English colonies, comprising as it does such varied range of products and pleasant climate. There can be no question as to the policy of the mother country in giving encouragement to her own dependencies.

As a confirmation of the writer's views, which are held in common with the most eminent authorities in Natal, he reprints the following extract from the Consular Report, which has already been referred to in different parts of this work :—

The number of European immigrants introduced under the system of free and assisted passages during 1880 was 874 as compared with 287 in 1879; this number will, it is hoped, be largely increased during the present year, a sum of 20,000*l.* having been put at the disposal of the Board by the Legislature, the corresponding sum in 1879 having been 10,000*l.*

A special settlement in the vicinity of Maritzburg was established, the immigrants having been placed on the farm free of all cost to themselves, and are to be allowed twelve years in which to pay the instalments due for the purchase of land. This experiment has not proved altogether successful, and, having been a very expensive one, will not probably be repeated.

One thousand six hundred and seventy-three Indian immigrants were landed during the year from five ships, one ship with 505 souls having come from Calcutta, and the remainder from Madras.

The Protector of Immigrants estimates the Indian population of Natal on December 31, 1880, at 20,536. This, it will be noted, differs from the estimate formed in the general population return of the colony.

These people appear to thrive in Natal, and a very small percentage of them care to return to their own country, but 195 having left during 1880.

The registered deaths during that year have been 285 and the births 335.

Those who have completed their indentures find no difficulty in obtaining employment at high wages, but a large proportion prefer to remain their own masters, taking up the vocations of pedlars, small shopkeepers, and agriculturists. Many of them have already amassed considerable wealth, and notwithstanding their somewhat improvident habits the so-called 'Free Indians' form an important class in the community.

It may be as well to add that in all new countries, and old ones for that matter, there are men destitute of principle, who should be avoided by new arrivals, and Natal is no exception to that rule. The following information which is printed *in extenso* will give the intending settler the latest and most detailed information :—

Rules and Regulations for the Disposal of the Crown Lands in the Colony of Natal.

1.—SALE OF CROWN LANDS, EXCLUSIVE OF CROWN RESERVES, TOWNSHIP LANDS, AND CERTAIN PASTURE LANDS.

1. Exclusive of all lands which are already, or which shall hereafter, be set apart for public purposes, either permanently, such as Crown forests, and lands required for the purposes of public defence and convenience, or temporarily, such as lands required for the formation of 'Special Settlements' under the provisions of Law No. 21, 1876, or otherwise for the time being, such as certain pasture lands under the Drakensberg not adapted for agriculture, and certain coal-bearing lands in the division of Newcastle, in the county of Klip River, as hereinafter shall be defined by public notice, and the con-

ditions for the renting out or leasing of which for grazing purposes are hereinafter separately dealt with, and exclusive of township lands, as hereinafter named and described, and the conditions for the sale of which are herein also separately dealt with, the unappropriated waste lands of the Crown are open for sale, in lots varying from ten to 2,000 acres.

2. All lands so open for sale as aforesaid will be sold in freehold, and by public auction only, to the highest bidder, and the upset price of such lands shall be at the rate of ten shillings per acre.

3. All lands will be sold subject to the following special servitudes, which shall be set forth in the conditions of sale and stated in the title deeds, namely :—

- (a) All authorised roads, railways, telegraphs, thoroughfares, and watercourses, now made or running on the said town lands, shall remain free and uninterrupted, as in their present or past use.
- (b) The said lands should be liable, without compensation to any proprietor or to any sub-grantee or lessee thereof, to have any roads, railways, railway stations, telegraphs or watercourses, made over any part of them for the public use and benefit by order of the Colonial Government, except those parts in which any building may actually be thereon erected at the time when any such roads, railways, railway stations, telegraphs or watercourses may be required to be made; in respect of which building, if required to be removed for any such purpose, reasonable compensation shall be made by the said Government.
- (c) The said lands shall be liable, without compensation to any proprietor or to any sub-grantee or lessee thereof, to the entry thereon by any person, by order of the Colonial Government, to remove therefrom any coal or any other mineral that may be found thereon, and also to the right of the Colonial Government to carry out such workings on or in the said lands as may be required for the removal or utilisation of such coals or other minerals, and also reserving to the Colonial Government the right of entry on said lands, and removing therefrom such materials, not including timber or wood, as may from time to time be required for the construction and repairs of any part of any public road running through the said lands.
- (d) The said lands, if 500 acres or more in extent, will be sold subject to the general right of all travellers to outspan upon them, in suitable situations, for not more than twenty-four hours, unless longer detained by just cause, as provided for under Law No. 9 of 1870, and to such other regulations relative to outspan as may hereafter be deemed necessary, and declared by the Government for the interests of the public.

4. Persons desirous of acquiring Crown lands by purchase must make application in writing to the Surveyor-General, and must set forth in such application the division in which the land they wish to purchase is situated, and as far as practicable, its position, boundaries, and extent. Should the Surveyor-General see no objection to the land so applied for being disposed of by public sale, he will submit the application for the approval of the Governor; and upon such approval, he will call upon the applicant to deposit with him the probable amount of fees required for the inspection, survey, and erection of beacons, in accordance with the tariff of survey fees, as fixed under Government notice, No. 124, of October 28, 1861, or such other Government notice as may be at any time issued.

5. In the event of the sale of the lands applied for, the expenses attending

the survey will be borne by the purchaser; and should the original applicant not become the purchaser, the fees deposited by him for the survey will be returned to him; but should no sale take place, no such refund will be made.

6. The Surveyor-General, on receiving the survey fees, will proceed with the inspection and survey of the lands for which application has been made, subject to the general conditions contained in Schedule B; and the applicant shall, personally or by duly-appointed deputy, attend at the inspection and at the marking off, by beacons, of the boundaries of the lands at the points where the lines intersect, and at such other points along the boundaries as may be necessary; and upon the completion of such survey, notice shall be published by the Surveyor-General in the *Government Gazette*, at least one month before the day of sale, setting forth that the lands so surveyed will be offered for sale by public auction at a time and place named in the notice.

7. On the day named in the said notice, the Surveyor-General shall cause the lands to be put up for sale by public auction.

8. The lands, having been put up to public auction, shall be sold to the highest bidder, who shall be deemed to be the purchaser, and who shall, on the day of sale, pay to the Surveyor-General, or person representing him, the expenses of the survey in full, and who shall, within three months from the date of sale, pay one-tenth part of the total purchase amount.

9. Upon the aforesaid payments being made, the Surveyor-General shall issue an occupation certificate to the purchaser, in the form hereunto annexed (Schedule A), and shall attach to the certificate a diagram showing the position, extent, and boundaries of the land, together with a copy of the conditions of such occupation, which conditions of such occupation commence to take effect from the date of the issue of the occupation certificate.

10. The conditions of such occupation shall be as follow:—Within six months of the issue of the said occupation certificate, the purchaser to whom such certificate is issued shall enter upon beneficial occupation of the land. To constitute such beneficial occupation there must be continuous personal occupation by the purchaser or by his agent, duly approved of by the Surveyor-General, during nine months in every year of the period for which the occupation certificate is issued, and the erection and maintenance of a suitable homestead or dwelling-house, and the cultivation, where the lands purchased are 100 acres or more in extent, of not less than one acre in every 100 acres.

11. Upon the issue of the occupation certificate, due notice of the purchase and of the certificate shall be communicated to the resident magistrate of the division in which the land is situated; and at the close of the third year, commencing from the date of the issue of the certificate, and at the close of each succeeding year until the expiration of the tenth year from the date aforesaid, the holder of the certificate shall obtain from the resident magistrate of the division a certificate showing that there has been such beneficial occupation.

12. At the close of every year, commencing from the date of the issue of the occupation certificate, the holder of the certificate shall also pay, either to the Surveyor-General or to the resident magistrate of the division, one tenth part of the total purchase amount until the whole amount has been paid; and the Surveyor-General or the resident magistrate shall grant a receipt for each instalment so paid.

13. The resident magistrate shall forward to the Surveyor-General a duplicate copy of every certificate of beneficial occupation so given by him as aforesaid, and of every receipt for the instalments so paid, together with the amounts of all such instalments; and the Surveyor-General shall pay all

moneys received by him, either from the occupant of the land or from the resident magistrate, into the public treasury, and shall keep an account of the same.

14. Upon receipt by the Surveyor-General of the final instalment of the purchase money, and upon receipt of the final certificate of beneficial occupation, and upon being satisfied that there has been such beneficial occupation, the Surveyor-General shall prepare a title vesting the land so occupied in freehold in the purchaser, which title shall be upon parchment, and shall be submitted to the Governor for his signature and the Seal of the Colony.

15. Upon the issue of every such title, the Surveyor-General shall cause the same to be registered in the office of the Registrar of Deeds; and the purchaser shall pay to Surveyor-General's Office, in respect of such title and registration, a fee of forty shillings.

16. Portions of land, not exceeding 320 acres in the case of agricultural lands, and 1,000 acres in the case of pastoral lands, for the purchase of which in freehold special application is made to the Surveyor-General, and the sale of which is authorised by the Government, shall be sold in freehold by public auction to the highest bidder, at an upset price of 1*l.* per acre.

17. The lands so sold as aforesaid shall be subject to the special servitudes set forth in Clause 3, and to no other servitudes. The total amount of the purchase money must be paid by the purchaser of such lands within a period of three months from the day of sale.

18. In the case of *bond fide* immigrants from Europe, lands need not be sold by public auction. 'Blocks' of land, not exceeding 50,000 acres in extent, may from time to time be surveyed and laid off as reserves for immigrants, to be disposed of under such conditions and regulations as the Governor in Council may from time to time direct to be issued.

19. For the purposes of these regulations any portions of forest land of a greater area than ten acres shall be deemed to be Crown forests. All such lands, and all lands upon which coal or other minerals are found shall be permanently set aside and reserved to the Crown, and shall not be sold or alienated under these regulations.

II.—SALE OF TOWNSHIP LANDS.

20. All township lands as set apart for sale in the townships hereinafter mentioned, and not reserved or otherwise appropriated, will be open, in lots not exceeding one erf, for sale to applicants, and for purchase at the several upset prices as below mentioned, and in the form and manner and subject to the rules for times and mode of payment, as set forth above in the case of other Crown lands.

	Upset price per erf.		
	£	s.	d.
Colenso	25	0	0
Estecourt	25	0	0
Greytown	25	0	0
Glendale	3	10	0
Harding	10	0	0
Ladysmith	25	0	0
Newcastle	20	0	0
North Barrow	12	10	0
Nottingham	25	0	0

N

	Upset price per erf.		
	£	s.	d.
Scottsburg	12	10	0
South Barrow	12	10	0
Stanger	12	10	0
Weenen	25	0	0
Weston	12	10	0

21. All town lots so sold shall be subject to the conditions of personal occupation by the purchaser, or by his agent, duly approved of by the Surveyor-General, or of useful occupation in the form of any building required for purposes of industrial business.

III.—RULES APPLICABLE TO ALL LANDS SOLD UNDER THE ABOVE REGULATIONS.

22. In the event of any purchaser failing to fulfil the conditions of beneficial occupation, or occupation as hereinbefore mentioned in clauses 10 and 18, or failing to pay an annual instalment of the purchase price, the occupation certificate will be cancelled, all payments and improvements by the purchaser being forfeited, and the sale becoming null and void.

23. In the event of the decease or bankruptcy of the purchaser before the issue of title to the land, his heirs, executors, administrators or assigns, upon fulfilment of the conditions of occupation and payment of purchase price in the manner aforesaid, shall be entitled to all the rights of the original purchaser.

IV.—PASTORAL LEASES AND LICENSES.

24. The Crown lands lying under the Drakensberg, which are unsuitable for agriculture, and will be hereafter described and defined by public notice in the *Government Gazette*, and those which are known as coal-bearing lands in the division of Newcastle, in the county of Klip River, will be open for occupation for grazing purposes, in areas varying from 500 to 5,000 acres, by annual licences or by lease, for any term not exceeding ten years.

25. The upset rental of such lands will be at the rate of one penny sterling per acre per annum, and shall be payable every year in advance.

26. Any person desirous of renting or leasing any of the aforementioned land must make application in writing to the Surveyor-General, setting forth the situation and extent of the land applied for; and every application so received will be registered, and a description thereof published in the *Government Gazette*.

27. Should there be no objection to the rental or lease of the lands so applied for, the Surveyor-General may, after one month from the date of publication as aforesaid, issue at the upset rental the lease or licence applied for; or should he deem it advisable, offer the lease of the lands for which application has been made for purchase of the same by public auction.

28. Every lease will be subject to the servitudes attached to the land set forth in sections a, b, c, and d, of Regulation No. 3, and may be determined by either party upon twelve months' notice being given, the parties giving such notice forfeiting the fees paid for survey, or it may be transferred by the lessees, with the consent of the Surveyor-General, upon the payment of a transfer fee of ten shillings.

29. All licences and leases so made shall be duly entered in a book to be kept for the purpose by the Surveyor-General; and every person to whom a

licence is issued shall pay to the Surveyor-General a fee of two pounds seven shillings; and every person to whom a lease is granted shall pay a fee of twenty shillings.

SCHEDULE A.

OCCUPATION CERTIFICATE.

This is to certify that _____ on the _____ day of _____ in the year of Our Lord One Thousand Eight Hundred and _____ at public auction, of which notice was duly given in the *Government Gazette*, did become the purchaser of a piece of Crown lands, situated in the county of _____, being the lot known as _____ bounded _____ and containing _____ acres _____ roods _____ poles, be the same more or less, without any liability or claim for lesser or greater contents or acreage, as will more fully appear by the diagram framed by the surveyor and hereunto annexed, with full power and authority to possess the same on certain conditions set forth at the sale, duly agreed to by the said purchaser, and repeated herein as following:—

SCHEDULE B.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS TO BE OBSERVED IN THE SURVEY OF CROWN LANDS.

1. Each allotment shall be laid off with reference to natural boundaries and features, sharing equally with other lands left open as Crown lands or surveyed at the same time for other applicants, arable, forest, and pasture capabilities.
2. Both banks of an important stream are not to be included in any one lot, unless the area of the lot is of such magnitude as to render such a condition necessary.
3. In surveying a river boundary, the bank of the stream or river is to be adopted as the boundary.
4. Lands left vacant, if of less width than one mile, must be included in the survey of adjoining lands; or the width must not be less than that of the land laid off, or to be laid off, adjoining the same.
5. Each lot should be bounded by four approximately equal sides, deviations from this being only permitted with the view to connection with adjoining lands, or to taking advantage of river boundaries and other natural features referred to in paragraph 1. Such deviations, moreover, will be attended with a proportionate increase in the cost of the survey.
6. Each lot must be connected with the boundaries of some other lot of land which has been already laid off on the general plan in the Surveyor-General's office, and all details of such connection will be required with the details of the survey of the lot so connected.
7. The proprietors of adjoining lots of land already laid off must be made aware by the surveyor, through notice duly given, of any new survey or surveys to be undertaken. The beacons and boundary lines of such adjoining lots must be carefully compared, and the new survey will proceed from, or be worked to, them.
8. Before proceeding with any survey the details of all adjoining surveys must be taken by the surveyor from the plans in the Surveyor-General's office.
9. The conditions laid down in Government Notice No. 32, 1862, with

regard to the erection and delivery of beacons to intending purchasers, or to their deputies or agents, must be strictly observed.

10. Notice, within reasonable time, must be given by the surveyor to each applicant or his agent, to enable him to be present at the survey, including the inspection: and to erect beacons, and take over the boundaries according to the notice cited above.

11. In the event of several applications being made for land in a locality, the total area of which is not sufficient for the allotment to each applicant of the full area, the respective areas applied for may be reduced with the concurrence of the applicants; and if this is not practicable from any cause, natural or otherwise, the survey of each lot will take place in the order of the dates of the applications for the same.

12. Should any survey approach the boundary of the colony in the Drakensberg, it will be necessary to connect the same with that boundary line if the distance be less than one mile; and in no case may the space intervening between any survey and that boundary line be of less width than that of such survey.

RENT OF PASTORAL LANDS.—By Government Notices of August 12, 1872, certain conditions approved by the Secretary of State are published for general information.

Applications will be received by the Surveyor-General for lease of Crown lands, not less than 1,000 acres, and not exceeding 2,000 acres in extent, at a yearly rental of not more than one penny per acre, nor less than half that sum.

One year's rent must accompany each application.

Each lease may be converted into freehold at five shillings per acre, or a portion of the same, not less than 250 acres, and in the latter case the leaseholder shall be entitled to a further lease of twice the quantity converted into freehold as grazing land at such rent, not exceeding one penny, and not less than one halfpenny per acre, as may be determined on by the Government. These lands are also held under certain conditions as to stock.

By Government Notice No. 154, 1875, grazing licences will be granted in the Counties of Weenen, Klip River, and Newcastle, at an upset price of one penny per acre, and a fee of 2*l.* 2*s.*

The following are the terms which emigrants who desire Government assistance have to subscribe to and the conditions on which aid will be granted.

For copies of the following forms, &c., the writer is indebted to the courtesy of Mr. W. Peace, the Emigration Agent for Natal.

NATAL GOVERNMENT EMIGRATION CIRCULAR. No. 2.

In the colony of Natal freehold land in lots of 10 to 2,000 acres can be bought from the Government at 10*s.* per acre, payable in ten yearly instalments, without interest.

NATAL GOVERNMENT EMIGRATION AGENCY,
21 Finsbury Circus, London, E.C.
January 16, 1882.

SIR,—The agent is authorised to grant assisted passages by mail steamers to certain classes of emigrants, for whom there are many openings for profitable occupation in Natal, on the terms mentioned herein.

1. The emigrants may be either married or single men of the following classes, viz.:—Farmers, farm servants,¹ carpenters, brickmakers, stonemasons, painters, shoemakers, waggon-makers, market gardeners, dairy farmers, cabinet-makers, bricklayers, blacksmiths, plasterers, wheelwrights, and other tradesmen; also assistants and female domestic servants going out under contract for service in the colony, and persons in possession of moderate capital, who intend to start as farmers or otherwise.²

2. Unmarried men over forty-five years of age, clerks, and shopkeepers, are not eligible.

3. In all cases married men must take their families with them.

4. Applicants must understand that the Form D attached hereto must be filled up with *all* the particulars called for, and be sent with the requisite testimonials to the undersigned, and also that no one can be finally accepted until the passage and deposit money has been paid at the rates stated in Clauses 5 and 6 hereof. Applicants must comply fully with these conditions *not less than fourteen days before the date when they will be ready to embark.*

5. The charge for assisted third-class passages from London to Natal is 5*l.*; all children under twelve years of age 2*l.* 10*s.* If emigrants wish to travel second-class, they have to pay, in addition to the third-class fare, 6*l.* per adult, and 7*s.* 6*d.* for each year of a child's age up to sixteen, infants in arms being counted as if one year old.

¹ At the present time the average rate of wages for competent agricultural labourers (single men) is 3*l.* to 3*l.* 10*s.* per month with board and lodgings; special terms are made with married men.

² At the present time the average rate of wages for all skilled artisans is from 1*s.* 3*d.* per hour.

N.B.—This charge includes good food (cooked), and the use of clean bed-linen on board the steamers, and an allowance for luggage of twenty cubic feet for each adult, and ten cubic feet for each child.

6. Emigrants to whom assisted passages are granted have to deposit with the emigration agent in London, at the same time as they pay their fares as per Clause 5, a sum equal to what they have to pay for third-class assisted passages, as a guarantee that they will not leave the steamer and stay at any other port *en route*. For the amount of such deposit the agent will give a draft, payable in Natal on presentation.

7. Emigrants are allowed, free of charge, the use of the immigration depôt that has lately been erected near the landing-place at Durban (with bedding and cooking utensils) for one week after landing, but have to provide their own food.

8. An officer of the Government goes on board each steamer arriving in the colony with emigrants, from whom advice may be obtained according to the need of each emigrant; but it must be understood that emigrants have no claim for assistance from the Government beyond the points herein mentioned.

9. Before the arrival in the colony of any shipment of emigrants under this system, the number (but not the names) of farm labourers and artisans of different classes who are included in the shipment is advertised in the colonial papers, so that persons requiring the services of such emigrants may send word of their requirements to the officer who receives the emigrants, but such emigrants have to choose their own employers and make their own bargains.

10. Emigrants are advised not to hamper themselves with cumbrous packages, such as bedding and household furniture; the result of so doing is generally loss and trouble. No special description of clothing is *necessary*, but clothing of light texture is most comfortable during part of the voyage.

11. Persons who have complied with the requirements set forth in Form D, and have paid their passage and deposit money, are forwarded by mail steamers leaving every week from London and Southampton alternately. Those sailing from the latter port are allowed free passes for the railway journey from London (Waterloo Station).

12. After payment of passage and deposit money emigrants receive further information to guide them as to the shipment of their baggage, and the date when they must be in London.

13. Emigrants can have their personal baggage insured for

the voyage by paying to the emigration agent, *before their departure*, 1s. 6d. for every 10l. value.

14. All payments must be made by crossed cheques (or Post Office Orders, payable at the General Post Office, London), to the order of Mr. W. Peace.

15. No emigrant will be allowed to embark in any vessel who is not, at the time, of sound mental and bodily health, and free from infectious or contagious disease.

16. Passage tickets are delivered to emigrants *after embarkation* (exceptions to this rule are only made in special cases).

Yours truly,

WALTER PEACE,

Emigration Agent for Natal.

NOTE.—This portion of the circular is to be retained by applicants who send to the agent the Form D annexed.

FORM D.

NATAL GOVERNMENT EMIGRATION.

ASSISTED PASSAGES.

This form is filled up by applicants for assisted passages to Natal in accordance with the terms specified in Circular No. 2, dated January 16, 1882, issued by Mr. W. Peace, Emigration Agent for Natal in London, and is to be sent to him at 21 Finsbury Circus, London, E.C., together with satisfactory original testimonials as to the respectability of the applicant and his experience in his avowed calling: the subjoined or a similar certificate of health having been signed by a duly qualified medical man.

Christian and Surname of Applicant (and of Wife and Children, if any)	Age last birthday	Married or Single	State whether vaccinated or had the Small Pox	Trade or Calling

State what capital in money Applicant will have on landing in Natal (including the deposit money) }
State what occupation Applicant intends to follow in Natal, and whether he intends to work for wages or on his own account }
State when ready to embark if accepted, } and which class of passage desired }
<p><i>Declaration to be signed by adult single emigrants or by the head of a family on behalf of himself and family.</i></p> <p>I do hereby declare that I have not at any former period been resident in the Colony of Natal or any of the districts adjacent thereto; that I am of good character; that I have neither paid nor agreed to pay any gratuity whatever, to or for the use or benefit of any one in regard to my passage; I engage to conform to the arrangements made for my voyage to Natal if accepted as an emigrant; and I further hereby declare that all the statements contained in the above form are true in letter and spirit.</p> <p style="text-align: right;"><i>Signature of Applicant</i> _____</p> <p><i>Witness to Signature</i> _____ <i>Address in full</i> _____</p> <p><i>Address of Witness</i> _____</p> <p style="text-align: right;">_____ Dated this ____ day of _____ 188</p>

CERTIFICATE OF PHYSICIAN OR SURGEON.

I certify that I have examined the above-named person _____, and that not seriously mutilated or deformed in person, and _____ in my opinion entirely free from any disease usually considered infectious or contagious or calculated to shorten life or to impair physical or mental energy.

Dated this ____ day of _____ 188

Signature _____
Residence _____

FORM A.

NATAL GOVERNMENT EMIGRATION AGENCY.

21 Finsbury Circus, London, E.C.

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I am authorised by the Natal Government to provide passage to Natal for _____

upon _____ compliance with the usual conditions and regulations.

I have therefore to request you to cause the enclosed form to be filled up and sent to me together with the necessary testimonials and medical certificate, as soon as possible, after which I will, in due course, forward the Government contract for signature, and give you full information for your guidance as to the steamer by which passage has been provided, and directions concerning baggage, &c.

I refer you to the printed conditions and regulations annexed, and to the note at the foot hereof.

I am,

Yours obediently,

Emigration Agent for Natal.

NOTE.—The undermentioned steamers will convey emigrants to Natal, and if the emigrant above referred to cannot leave by one of them, the reason for delay must be communicated to the Emigration Agent forthwith:—

Steam Ship.

Date of sailing.

Port of Embarkation.

NATAL GOVERNMENT EMIGRATION.

CONDITIONS AND REGULATIONS FOR THE INFORMATION OF NOMINATED EMIGRANTS.

1. Persons who have complied with the requirements set forth in Form B and been accepted as emigrants by the Emigration Agent in London, are forwarded to Natal by Royal Mail steamers leaving every month from London and Southampton alternately, and receive at least fourteen days' notice of the arrangements made for their passage.

2. Emigrants sailing from Southampton are provided with railway tickets for the journey from London (Waterloo Station), but no other allowance whatever is made in England.

3. Accepted emigrants must be prepared to leave England for Natal within six months from the date of the first notice to them of their nomination. (The Emigration Agent may grant a short extension of time on satisfactory cause being shown.)

4. Married men must take their families with them. The passages of wives and children (included in the nomination) are granted on same basis as that of the head of the family.

5. The ordinary passage granted to emigrants is in the steerage, but on their paying to the Emigration Agent at least fourteen days before the date of their intended departure, the

sum of 6*l.* per adult and 7*s.* 6*d.* per year for every year up to the age of sixteen years, for children, second-class passage will be provided.

6. Emigrants can have their personal baggage insured for the voyage by sending to the Emigration Agent, fourteen days prior to their intended departure, 1*s.* 6*d.* for every 10*l.* value.

7. Payments must be made by Crossed Cheques (or Post Office Orders payable at the General Post Office, London), to the order of Mr. Walter Peace.

8. Bedding and every requisite for health and comfort on the voyage are supplied on board the steamers.

9. When once a passage has been provided for an emigrant, it must be utilised, as failure to do so will involve a penalty of 5*l.* 8*s.* per adult, payable by the person who fails to embark on due date.

10. Any change of address by nominated emigrants must be at once notified to the Emigration Agent in London.

11. No emigrant will be allowed to embark in any vessel, who is not, at the time, of sound mental and bodily health and free from any infectious or contagious disease.

12. All emigrants must present themselves at the office of the Emigration Agent in London for final approval between the hours of 10 A.M. and 1 P.M. on the day previous to the one fixed for their departure. Passage tickets are delivered to emigrants after embarkation (exceptions to this rule are only allowed in special cases).

FORM B.

NATAL GOVERNMENT EMIGRATION.

This form is to be filled up by persons who have been nominated for passage to Natal and approved by the Land and Immigration Board on behalf of the Government, and is to be sent without delay to the Natal Emigration Agent, 21 Finsbury Circus, London, E.C., together with satisfactory original testimonials as to character and as to skill in trade or occupation: the subjoined certificate of health having been signed by a duly qualified medical man.

NOTE.—It would save much trouble if persons nominated for passages to Natal would understand that the information which is asked for hereunder, must be supplied in the form set forth before they can be accepted as emigrants or have their passages booked. A careful perusal of the information given on the back of Form A is advisable.

Christian and Surnames in full	Age last birthday	Married or Single	State whether vaccinated or had the Small Pox	Trade or Calling
Name of Nominator in Natal, or his } Representative				
List of Testimonials enclosed here- } with as to character, and skill in trade or occupation				
Emigrant's correct postal address .				
State when you will be ready to em- } bark if accepted, and whether you intend to pay the difference to have second-class passage				

Here follows the form of declaration to be signed by emigrants, and the form of medical certificate required, as in Form D, Circular No. 2.

FORM C.

NATAL GOVERNMENT EMIGRATION AGENCY.

21 Finsbury Circus, London, E.C.

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I have your letter of the _____ enclosing
Form _____ duly completed, with _____ testimonials _____

I now send herewith one copy of the contract which is to be
signed by _____ in the presence of and attested by the
minister of the parish or a justice of the peace, and returned to
me, within three days, when the arrangements for _____
passage will be completed.

A duplicate of the contract, duly signed by the nominator in Natal, will be handed to _____ at this office the day before sailing.

I have booked _____ class passage _____ for _____ per S.S. _____ which will sail from _____ on the _____ day of _____ 188 (the passage will however, be changed to second-class if I receive from you on or before the _____ the sum of £ _____), and _____ required to attend at this office between the hours of 10 A.M. and 1 P.M. on _____ the _____, when _____ will receive all instructions as to embarkation.

For directions as to baggage, &c., see other side.

I am,

Your obedient servant,

Emigration Agent for Natal.

1. Baggage allowance:—

For each emigrant above ten years of age, twenty cubic feet. Under ten years of age, ten cubic feet.

Freight on any excess (payable on board) 1s. 6d. per cubic foot.

Baggage labels are supplied the day before sailing.

2. Packages intended for the cabin should not exceed thirteen inches in depth, twenty inches in width, and three feet in length, those intended for the baggage room may be of any size or shape.

3. Heavy luggage is brought on deck once every week if required.

4. It is generally advisable that emigrants should have their luggage with them on their journey to join the ship, but where packages are heavy and cumbersome, to ensure shipment they must be sent to the vessel, carriage paid, four or five days in advance: addresses in such cases should be legibly painted in form as follows:—

Where emigrants
are to sail from
London.

Baggage of Mr.

Passenger to NATAL,
per S.S. "(name of steamer),"
Loading at East India Dock Basin, London, E.
(Baggage Room) or (Cabin).

Advice note of the despatch of baggage
to be sent to Messrs. Donald Currie & Co.,
3 & 4 Fenchurch Street, London, E.C.

Or,

Where emigrants
are to sail from
Southampton.

Baggage of Mr.

Passenger to NATAL,
per S.S. "(name of steamer),"

Loading at Southampton.

(Baggage Room) or (Cabin).

Advice note in this case must be addressed to the Superintendent, Union Steam Ship Co., 8 Oriental Place, Southampton.

It is not allowed that emigrants consign their baggage to the emigration agent under any circumstances.¹

The office of the emigration agent in London is near "Moorgate Street," "Liverpool Street," and "Broad Street" stations.

On arrival in Natal all emigrants must report themselves to *The Secretary of Land and Immigration Board in Durban.*

¹ See Clause 10, Circular No. 2.

APPENDIX.

The following correspondence concerns the inhabitants of Natal so nearly that no apology is needed for its reproduction. It is satisfactory to know that the Earl of Kimberley is prepared to recognise the demands of the natives.

ENCLOSURE 1.

To His Excellency Sir GEORGE POMEROY-COLLEY, Major-General, Knight Commander of the Most Exalted Order of the Star of India, Companion of the Most Honourable Order of the Bath, Companion of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George, Governor and Commander-in-Chief over the Colony of Natal, Vice-Admiral of the same, and Supreme Chief over the Native Population.

MAY it please Your Excellency, the Legislative Council beg respectfully to transmit for your Excellency's information the following resolutions which passed the Council this day, with reference to the Despatches from General Sir Garnet Wolseley to the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for the Colonies, dated February 13, 1880, and from the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for the Colonies to his Excellency the Governor of Natal, dated May 27th, 1880, on the subject of the proposal for Responsible Government for Natal, and to pray your Excellency to be pleased to transmit copies thereof to the Right Honourable the Secretary of State for the Colonies, for his Lordship's information and favourable consideration.

By Resolution of the Legislative Council, this 20th day of December 1880.

(Signed) JNO. W. AKERMAN,
Speaker.

ENCLOSURE 2.

RESOLUTIONS adopted by the LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL of NATAL on the 20th day of December 1880, with reference to the Despatches from General Sir GARNET WOLSELEY to the Right Hon. the SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE COLONIES, dated February 13, 1880, and from the Right Hon. the SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE COLONIES to His Excellency Sir GEORGE POMEROY-COLLEY, dated May 27, 1880, on the subject of the proposal for Responsible Government for Natal.

1. That this Council learns with deep regret that the Right Hon. the Secretary of State for the Colonies, the Earl of Kimberley, felt unable to recommend to the approval of Her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen the prayer of this Honourable House, as set forth in its humble petition to the Crown for the grant of Responsible Government.

2. That this Council is led to infer that his Lordship was moved to the course he thus adopted by the statements and allegations contained in the Despatch, dated February 13, 1880, in which General Sir Garnet Wolseley transmitted to the Colonial Office the petition of this House, with the accompanying documents.

3. That this House feels called upon to place on record its reply to the said statements and allegations, believing them to be not only in most in-

stances opposed to fact, but to be calculated most seriously to mislead Her Majesty's Government with regard to the circumstances of the Colony, the aims and purposes of the Colonists, and the policy of this Council. This reply is therefore appended to and is to be taken as forming part of this Resolution. (*See Annexure A.*)

4. That this Council sees no reason to modify the views and convictions embodied in the Bill and Resolutions adopted last Session, that it believes the present form of Government to be wholly unsuited to the needs of the country and the cravings of its people; that a growing discontent with its existing institutions pervades the community, and that in the interests of peace and order, no less than of effective administration, it is desirable that the boon asked for be graciously and speedily granted.

5. That while this House has loyally acted up to the spirit of Lord Kimberley's appeal, and done its best to co-operate with Her Majesty's Government in providing for the ordinary legislative needs of the Colony, it nevertheless looks to his Lordship for a generous re-consideration of the claim of this Colony to participate in those rights of self-government which are now enjoyed to the full by the fellow-subjects and neighbours in the Cape Colony.

ANNEXURE A.

COMMENTS ON SIR GARNET WOLSELEY'S DESPATCH, DATED FEBRUARY 13, 1880.

That practically every man of European descent can vote if he wishes. (Par. 3.)

Facts at the last election disprove this statement. Complaints were then made by large numbers of persons of mature age and respectable position, that owing to the want of the prescribed property qualification they were debarred from voting. There are probably as many adult non-electors as electors.

That the total number of men entitled to vote now is 4,103, of whom 1,650 belong to the two boroughs of Pietermaritzburg and Durban. (Par. 4.)

According to the last voters' roll the total number of registered electors is about 6,800, and of these 2,300 belong to the two boroughs.

That the late Council was elected by a total number of 997 voters, of whom 503 voted in the two boroughs; whilst the remaining 11 Members were returned by a total number of 494 voters. (Par. 4.)

This proves nothing, as on the occasion in question there were contests in only three constituencies, and in the two boroughs there were no contests.

That any attempt to create a Constitution on such a basis, in imitation of that which we possess in England, would be as futile as it would be dangerous. (Par. 5.)

Why, it may be asked, should it be more difficult to undertake in Natal responsibilities that have been successfully discharged by other Colonies and States similarly situated as regards a coloured population? As a rule small States are more effectively governed than large ones. The compact and contracted area of Natal renders it easier to exercise authority here than in larger and more straggling territories. The comparative smallness of population

does not of necessity exaggerate the difficulty. The grown up males of European descent, moreover, number nearer 10,000 than 4,100.

That the whole white population does not amount to 22,300 souls, while the Kafir population is said to be nearly 400,000.

The white population of this Colony probably falls little short of 30,000, but there is necessarily a larger proportion of adult men amongst them than amongst the Natives. Moreover, the white males are individually of a better class than would be the aggregate of a British community either at home or in most of the other Colonies. This fact has been recognised again and again, both by Governors and visitors, and more especially by Sir Bartle Frere.

That the white inhabitants are not only few in number but are inexperienced in the art of Government.

The Colonists of Natal may safely claim to have had as much experience in matters of Government as had the white inhabitants of other Colonies and countries that have successfully taken upon themselves the management of their own affairs. Their success in controlling and conducting municipal and other institutions is an earnest of their competency for the discharge of administrative duties. It may be mentioned that two of the members of the present Executive are Colonists in the fullest sense of the term. Mere increase in numbers does not secure administrative experience to a community. The early Colonists of America succeeded in the business of self-rule although they were surrounded by powerful and hostile tribes.

That the relation of the white inhabitants to the immensely preponderant black population places an insuperable obstacle in the way of the successful Government of the Colony by the voice of the minority of its people.

The relations which exist between the whites and the blacks in Natal were admitted by Sir Garnet Wolseley himself, during his first visit to the Colony, to be marked by greater harmony and friendliness than he had witnessed between the races in other lands. The Natives and the Colonists have lived in perfect amity together for a period of over thirty years. Nor can better testimony on this point be needed than is borne by the well-known fact that the Native levies called out during the Zulu War entreated to be led by Colonists rather than by Imperial officers and strangers.

That it was not intended by the Council that the Natives should have any voice in public affairs, or that they should be directly represented in either of the two Councils.

On the contrary, the proposed Upper House was expressly constituted with a view to the protection and representation of Native interests. The objection raised is based upon the fallacy that the white Colonists have not the welfare of the Native as much at heart as the Imperial Government or its local representatives. The Council confidently challenges a scrutiny of its own records in proof of its averment that they afford no evidence of any indifference or hostility to the interests and well-being of the Natives.

That white men will not labour with their hands.

This statement is contradicted by daily and constant experience. All the skilled mechanical work of the Colony is done by white labour. Under the past and present system of administration no Native skilled mechanics or artisans have been produced.

That the Colonists want the Natives to work for them for little or nothing.

The steady rise in the rates of Kafir wages, the increasing inability of farmers to get Native labour for ordinary purposes, and the necessity that compels the Colonists to import coloured labour from India, Africa, and Mauritius, sufficiently answer this allegation.

That this craving for costless labour would command legislation, were independent powers of legislation surrendered to its 4,100 voters, that some steps would be taken to subordinate the black man in relations of appropriate servitude to his white superior.

This passage appears to imply that under Responsible Government the Colonists would insist upon the establishment of a form of slavery, an interpretation which is borne out in a succeeding paragraph by these words:—‘I believe that one of the principal and earliest products of Responsible Government in Natal would be an attempt to set up, little by little, the compulsory relation of master and servant, employer and employed, between the white population and the black.’ It seems scarcely necessary to rebut such a groundless and injurious charge, but there is nothing on record, as regards legislative or municipal action, to warrant the imputation.

That rash attempts to interfere with the customs and habits of this fine and warlike race [i.e., the Natives in Natal] would, in all probability, engender a war, with which the white population of Natal, and probably the white population of all South Africa, would be unable to cope.

The history of this Colony and the proceedings of its Legislature indicate an extreme reluctance to interfere at all with Native customs, but it is apparent that the time will come when the laws that govern both races must be brought into closer harmony. The only serious attempts to interfere at all with the customs and habits of the Native have been made at the instance of the Government, and it is self-evident that those who would directly and immediately suffer from the effects of a rupture would be the least likely to precipitate a collision.

That to grant Responsible Government would be as unjust to the large number of Natives living within its borders, as it would be dangerous to the peace of South Africa, and therefore injurious to the British Empire generally.

This is merely a fanciful deduction, drawn from the foregoing assumptions, which have been shown to be imaginary. On the contrary, it is believed that Responsible Government would tend to secure the enactment of measures whereby the well-being of the Native would be promoted, the peace of the Colony protected, and the interests of the Empire subverted. These measures have been hitherto and lamentably neglected, mainly because the right of interference in Native matters has, except in a very few instances, been practically denied to the Legislature.

That elective members of this Council desire to annex Zululand to Her Majesty's South African Dominions, by imposing taxation upon the Zulu people, by placing British Magistrates in every district of the country, and making Her Majesty's authority—the authority of the Colonists

under a Royal cloak—paramount throughout the length and breadth of the country.

Elective members have only contended that Zululand should be made to pay its own expenses, and that Her Majesty's authority should be effective rather than nominal and shadowy there. This is what the Zulus themselves desire. Had the Colonists sought to exercise authority there they would have agreed to pay the expenses of the Zulu Resident which are now charged upon the sum reserved from legislative control for the education and elevation of the Natal Natives. As a matter of fact, the leading Chief in Zululand, John Dunn, has already appointed European magistrates of his own choosing, and other Native Chiefs have exhibited a disposition to do the same.

That the white man hungers for farms beyond the Tugela River.

The Council is wholly ignorant of any foundation for this statement.

That the complete reversal of the policy upon which the Zululand Settlement was effected would be amongst the first objects aimed at by the proposed Parliament of this Colony.

This is also a mere assumption, with nothing to justify it, except the certainty that if a Responsible Government was compelled to pay for the representation of its authority in Zululand it would insist upon the right to exercise an effective control there.

That war will sooner or later be the result of any interference with the Zulu Settlement.

It is only necessary on this point to say that it does not appear manifest why the settlement of Zululand should be imported as an element of discussion when considering the question of constitutional reform in Natal. The Council in its report last year made no allusion to it.

That to the Colonists war means the spending amongst them of millions of money drawn from the English Treasury, and the crime of bringing about a Native war does not so clearly appear to the Natal Colonist, who thinks that he may rely always upon the British battalions to save him from the adverse consequences of a conflict which he may have himself provoked.

It is with no less surprise and regret that the House finds a person of Sir Garnet Wolseley's eminence and local knowledge repeating and endorsing the unwarrantable aspersions in which it had been the custom of certain distant non-colonial observers to indulge. To Colonists a war means the spreading amongst them of distress, alarm, and confusion; peril to life and property in outlying districts, the arrest of progress, and general disorganisation. The Zulu War was in no sense of the term the result of Colonial policy or action, nor was its cost enhanced by Colonial instrumentality. The Council regard with pain and indignation the uncalled for and cruel stigma thus cast upon the Colonists by Sir Garnet Wolseley.

That the interference with the internal affairs of Zululand by any Government here constituted would result in war.

If a Responsible Government sought at all to interfere in the affairs of Zululand it would be with a view to secure and establish peace, not to take any action which might presumably lead to war.

That confederation is the only means through which the difficulties of self-

government will be surmounted among these communities, and that the premature grant of self-government to the Colony of Natal, which is now asked for, would immeasurably retard, if not altogether defeat, that consummation.

So far from the grant of Responsible Government to this Colony being calculated to retard the union of Natal with the Cape Colony, it offers the only condition under which any such scheme of union could be entertained or considered.

That rivalries, competing claims, and irreconcilable pretensions will arise between the several self-governed Colonies and prevent union.

On this point, the Council need but point out that the existence of Responsible Government in each of the North American Colonies did not interfere with the consolidation of the Dominion of Canada. Unless the Colonists of Natal feel that they can enter upon the discussion of any proposals for union upon a footing of political equality with their neighbours, they will be naturally indisposed to engage in any preliminary negotiations under circumstances of manifest constitutional disadvantage.

No. 2.

THE RIGHT HON. THE EARL OF KIMBERLEY TO THE OFFICER ADMINISTERING THE GOVERNMENT OF NATAL.

SIR,

Downing Street, March 15, 1881.

I have received Sir G. Colley's Despatch, of the 23rd of January, enclosing copies of an address and resolutions of the Legislative Council of Natal, in reference to the proposal which has formed the subject of previous correspondence, that Responsible Government should be granted to the Colony.

I have to request that you will inform the Council that I have given my careful attention to their address and resolutions, and that I regret that Her Majesty's Government are unable to take any other view of the subject than that which has already been conveyed to them in my Despatch of the 27th May last.

I do not perceive that it would be of any advantage to enter again into the general question, which has been already fully discussed; but I may observe that I do not see that the Council have made any attempt to meet the objections to the proposals pointed out in the 5th and 6th paragraphs of that despatch.

The Officer Administering
the Government.

I have, &c.,
(Signed)

KIMBERLEY.

That the Imperial Government are impressed with the importance of granting an independent Government to the Colony is shown by the following extract of a despatch from Earl Kimberley to Sir H. Bulwer, dated February 2, 1882.¹

¹ The note referred to on February 2 was afterwards withdrawn, and the following letter substituted with the explanation.

INSTRUCTIONS addressed to Sir H. BULWER, K.C.M.G., on his APPOINTMENT to the GOVERNMENT of NATAL, and PAPERS relating thereto. [C.—3174] March 1882.

It is requested that this may be substituted for the despatch printed at page 13 of [C.—3174], which by an error in printing the correspondence for Parliament was not a correct copy of the Despatch as sent to Sir H. Bulwer.

No. 7.

THE RIGHT HON. THE EARL OF KIMBERLEY TO SIR H. BULWER, K.C.M.G.

SIR,

Downing Street, February 2, 1882.

Sir Evelyn Wood, in his Despatch of December 10¹ last transmitted to me copy of a Report of a Select Committee of the Legislative Council respecting the proposal for the establishment of Responsible Government in Natal, together with a petition to the Queen from the Council on the same subject.

2. I have laid the petition before the Queen, who was pleased to receive it very graciously, and I now proceed to state to you the conclusions at which, after full consideration, Her Majesty's Government have arrived on the important questions raised in these documents.

3. The Committee preface their report by the statement that while some of their body were in favour of complete self-government, others had advocated more gradual progressive changes, and that it 'must therefore be understood that the conclusions arrived at were the result of concessions and compromises on both sides.' As, however, the Committee 'resolved that no reform in the government of the Colony will meet the requirements of the case unless the Ministry is made to vacate office on the loss of the confidence of a majority of the Legislative Council,' which is, in other words, the adoption of the system known as 'Responsible Government,' Her Majesty's Government are unable to perceive in what respect the recommendations of the Committee fall short of that system, and I proceed, therefore, to consider them from that point of view.

4. In my Despatch of May 27, 1880,² to the late Sir G. P. Colley, whilst admitting that the existing Constitution was not one which could with advantage be permanently maintained, I said that Her Majesty's Government considered it advisable that the establishment of Responsible Government should be postponed until the Colony was included in a general South African Confederation.

5. At that time it was expected that the Cape Government would take early steps to assemble a conference on the subject of Confederation, and proposals for that purpose were shortly afterwards brought forward in the Cape Parliament. Those proposals, however, fell to the ground, and there is now little probability that any action will be taken for the establishment of a Confederation under the South Africa Act, 1877, before the expiration of that Act in next August.

6. It is the fact also that, as the Committee point out, by the union of Griqualand West with the Cape Colony, and the recent changes in the Transvaal, the Colonists of Natal remain the only white community in South Africa which has not full control over its local affairs.

7. In these circumstances Her Majesty's Government admit it is reasonable that the question of the establishment of Responsible Government in Natal

¹ No. 5.

² No. 21 of [C. 2,676] of August 1880.

should be reconsidered, and they have carefully examined the Report of the Committee in order to see how far the Colonists are prepared to meet the difficulties pointed out in my Despatch to Sir G. P. Colley to which I have referred above.

8. In paragraphs 5 and 6 of that Despatch I wrote as follows: 'If Responsible Government were now granted to the Colony, a native population estimated to amount to no less than 400,000 souls would be placed under the sole control of a body of European settlers who are not much more than 20,000 in number. Moreover, in the view of Her Majesty's Government the exercise of complete self-government by a Colony brings with it the obligation that the Colony should undertake the duty of its own defence—that is to say, not only the maintenance of internal order, but also defence against aggression from bordering native tribes; and it appears to have been very generally admitted in the Natal Legislative Council, either directly or by implication, that the Colony is very far from being able to provide from its own unaided resources for the protection of its frontiers.

'The result would be that if the direction of border affairs were placed in the hands of responsible Ministers representing the majority in the local Legislature, the Imperial Government would be saddled with the cost and responsibility of providing against the consequences of a policy over which they had ceased to have any effective control.'

9. I might question the statement of the Committee that 'under whatever form of government the Colony may be placed, the burden of the maintenance of internal order will always rest upon the Colonists in the future, as in fact it has done in the past. Hence the right of the sole control of and over the native population must be left in the hands of the Colony.' But it is unnecessary to enter into a controversy on this point, as Her Majesty's Government accept the assurance that, in the words of the Report, 'for the preservation of its own internal peace and order the Colony is prepared to provide.'

10. I must observe, however, that the proposition that the sole control of the natives must be left in the hands of the Colony is inconsistent with the proviso which is appended to it, 'that all measures which may relate to native policy shall be referred to the Home Government for its consideration and approval.' If the 'sole control of and over the native population' is vested in Ministers responsible to the Colonial Legislature, the responsibility attached to that control cannot be divided between them and the Home Government, but must rest with the Government of the Colony. Her Majesty's Government must, of course, be assured, before the control of the natives is handed over to the local Government, that due provision has been made for the protection of the rights and interests of the large native population which will be affected by the change. I shall address a separate Despatch to you on this subject.

11. The Committee contend that the Colony ought to be relieved from the burden of defending itself against bordering native tribes, on the ground that 'the Council has not claimed and would not claim the right of interfering in the affairs of territories beyond the borders of the Colony,' and they point out 'that the duty of protecting the Colony from external foes, whether by sea or land, devolves on the Empire as a whole.'

12. I may refer here to my letter of November 17, 1870,¹ to Sir H. Barkly, on the subject of the establishment of Responsible Government at the Cape,

¹ No. 29 in [C. 459] of August 1871.

in which I observed that 'it would be impossible for Her Majesty's Government to make such a separation as you suggest between the management of the internal affairs of the Colony and the defence of its frontiers against native tribes. Disturbances may easily arise amongst the natives within the borders of the Colony which may extend to the native tribes beyond the frontier, and it is obviously impracticable to divide the task of repressing such disturbances into two parts, for one of which the Imperial and the other the Colonial Government is to be responsible.' In the same letter it was distinctly intimated that it was not the intention of Her Majesty's Government to maintain permanently in the Cape Colony any troops unless required for Imperial purposes. Various circumstances caused delay in acting upon this decision, but it has now been carried into effect, and except a small detachment at St. John's River, which it is intended shortly to replace by Colonial police, the force is confined to the Cape Town garrison. In like manner, if Responsible Government is established in Natal, Her Majesty's Government would not be prepared to continue to station Imperial troops in the Colony as a permanent garrison, either for the maintenance of internal order or for the defence of the frontiers.

13. The intimate connection between the native population of Natal and Zululand renders it impossible to treat the government of Natal as a separate matter having no concern with what passes on the other side of the border, and indeed the Council has just given a striking proof of this in the resolutions which it has thought it necessary to pass protesting against the restoration of Cetewayo.

14. Her Majesty's Government fully recognise the concern of this country in the defence of the Colony against any aggression by Foreign Powers, but they cannot undertake to station a garrison in the Colony for the purpose of protecting it against border tribes, when the whole control of local affairs is vested in the Colonists under the system of Responsible Government. Her Majesty's regular forces must be looked upon as a reserve to be resorted to only in the case of extreme necessity when a Colony has been proved to be unable to deal with the emergency from its own resources; indeed, the Committee themselves observe that, in the case of acts of aggression from bordering territories, the brunt of defence must be borne in the first instance by the Colonists.

15. Her Majesty's Government cannot but feel that the difficulty which they have repeatedly pointed out of establishing Responsible Government in Natal on account of the small numbers of the white population, both absolutely and relatively to the natives, and the presence of a large and warlike native population of the same race on the northern border of the Colony, still remains to a considerable extent, although it is true that the white population has somewhat increased of late years, and that the Zulu power has been broken by the late war. Looking, however, to all the circumstances of the case, and to the frequent applications which have been made by the Council for greater freedom of government, they have come to the conclusion that it would not be their duty any longer to oppose the wishes of the Council, if the Colonists, after an opportunity has been given them of expressing their opinion on the question by a fresh election to the Council, with the full knowledge of the responsibilities which they are about to undertake, decide in favour of the proposed change in the Constitution.

16. I have therefore to instruct you to take an early opportunity to dissolve the present Council in order to ascertain the views of the constituencies by means of fresh elections.

17. If the answer should be in the affirmative, I agree with the Committee

that it will be necessary to considerably increase the number of members and to extend the franchise.

18. With regard to the five non-elective seats, inasmuch as they are now attached to certain offices, I do not see how, without a change, which has not been suggested, they can be retained in the Council under the new system. It is obvious that if the Ministers are chosen from the elected members, the non-elective seats would thereby become vacant and could not be filled up.

19. Following the principle of the Bill introduced for the establishment of Responsible Government in 1870, the Council has not proposed that a second Legislative Chamber shall be provided in the altered Constitution. I infer it to be the present opinion of the Council that the small numbers of the white population of the Colony do not afford sufficient materials for a Legislature consisting of two Houses, and that, under proper safeguards, the system of Responsible Government can be efficiently worked in a single Chamber. This constitutional arrangement is in operation in the Canadian Provinces of British Columbia, Manitoba, and Ontario, which last-named important Province has an Assembly of eighty-eight members. But it is to be remembered that under the Constitution of Canada the principal questions of public policy are reserved to the Dominion Parliament, and there is at present no instance of a single Chamber with full Parliamentary powers in a British Colony under Responsible Government. In Natal it will be especially desirable, having regard to the gravity of native questions, as touching directly or indirectly almost every department of the administration, that there should be some protection against hasty and ill-considered legislation and action, such as it is elsewhere the object of a second Chamber to supply. The point is one of serious importance, and will require careful consideration when the details of the proposed constitutional changes are being determined.

20. Upon this subject, and generally upon the question of the future composition of the Council, I shall be glad to receive your report after you have had the opportunity of consulting with the leading Colonists.

I have, &c.,

Sir H. Bulwer, &c. &c.

(Signed) KIMBERLEY.

In the face of this Despatch the Colonists can but wait in confidence that in due time their claims to enjoy the right of self-government will be conceded. That they have shown themselves equal to the task has been proved incontestably.

The question was revived in the House of Commons on July 3, by Sir George Campbell, who called attention to the recent despatch of the Secretary of State for the Colonies regarding Responsible Government in Natal, and made special reference to the policy pursued towards the native subjects of the British Crown in South Africa. The hon. gentleman reminded the House that Natal had declined to accept Responsible Government on the terms offered by Her Majesty's Government, and contended that the negotiations required the serious consideration of Englishmen. The 20,000 or 30,000 colonists in Natal had been offered not only self-government, but also rule over 400,000 natives, and to make the matter more serious the proposal had been made without consultation with the legislature of this

country. He expressed himself in favour of retaining British control over the native population of South Africa, and moved for further papers with reference to Responsible Government in Natal.

Sir H. Holland contended that the natives had from the time of Sir Theophilus Shepstone received fair and proper treatment.

Mr. Evelyn Ashley asserted that in Natal the natives had always been treated with justice by the colonists, and quoted a despatch from Lord Kimberley, in which due care for the natives was demanded by the Colonial Secretary. There were, he said, no further papers to produce.

The following tables, which show the rise, progress, and the monetary and fiscal state of the colony, the amount and values of the imports and exports, need no comments, as they speak for themselves, and show the rapid growth and extension of trade and revenue for the past thirty years. The rates of import and export duty will also be found of value, not only to emigrants but to merchants and shippers, and all who are interested in the trade of South Africa.

MANUFACTORIES, ETC., IN 1877.

Counties and Divisions	Steam-power sugar mills ¹	Horse or Ox-power sugar mills	Coffee works	Cotton gins	Arrowroot mills	Corn mills ²	Saw mills ²
Pietermaritzburg County	—	—	—	—	—	11	10
Durban County	11	2	6	1	6	2	4
Klip River County	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Newcastle Division	—	—	—	—	—	10	—
Umvoti County	—	—	—	—	—	3	—
Weenen County	—	—	—	—	—	3	—
Inanda Division	28	4	29	9	1	1	—
Tugela Division	7	4	20	2	3	—	—
Alexandra County	15	1	—	—	—	—	1
Alfred County	—	—	—	—	—	1	—

¹ Respecting the foregoing return of manufactories, &c., we may observe that very many of these sugar mills are very powerful and of the most modern description, and calculated to produce first-class sugars.

² Some of these mills are worked by steam and others by water power. In Pietermaritzburg County there are wool-washing and pressing, waggon-builders, an iron and brass foundry, tannery, candle-makers, and other useful establishments; and in Durban County there are iron and brass foundries, bone mills, oil mills, &c.

REVENUE PROPER OF NATAL FOR 1879.

	£	s.	d.
Customs	288,557	14	10
Light dues	1,394	0	4
Excise	20,679	4	5
Steam-tug dues	4,247	5	1
Port and harbour dues	6,312	17	4
Wharf dues	13,087	10	0
Land sales	1,132	17	4
Land revenue	9,627	2	6
Transfer dues	18,097	11	11
Stamps	5,413	16	4
Tax (native hut)	60,900	7	6
Mail service	14,743	8	6
Fines and fees of court	7,988	15	2
Fees of office	2,505	0	0
Immigration	862	12	6
Reimbursements	634	2	9
Sale of Government property	2,038	0	11
Ammunition	11,558	8	9
Miscellaneous	7,042	3	8
Interest	8,409	0	6
Sums refunded	899	10	1
Receipts on account of Reserved Civil List	1,109	4	5
Dog tax	238	5	0
Special receipts	975	16	8
Telegraphs	4,375	0	1
Harbour works	115	5	0
Railways	39,723	0	4
Total Revenue proper	£473,478	1	6

Receipts and sums not actual Revenue :—

Advances repaid	5,839	12	4
Deposits made	13,361	11	10
Savings bank	18,306	14	9
Remittances and drafts between stations	127,931	7	8
Local money orders	1,636	9	0
Receipts account, war expenditure	13,781	11	0
" " Cape Government	319	10	2
" " Mauritius Government	245	19	5
" " Imperial Government	8,376	2	8
Investments	243,850	0	0
Land and Immigration Fund	5,345	8	9
Indian Immigration Trust Board	7,003	18	6
Investments, account of Indian Immigration Trust Board	30,408	13	11
Natal Government Railways	2,438	12	8
Surplus funds invested	9,960	0	0
Released Sinking Fund	7,001	0	0

	£	s.	d.
North Barrow Township Fund	160	7	4
South " " " " " "	342	10	0
Newcastle " " " " " "	0	10	0
Bills receivable	163	10	0
Amount received from Imperial Government on account of War Expenditure	25,847	15	0
Total	£995,799	6	6

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE OF NATAL FOR 1879.

Salaries and allowances	263,126	2	0
Pensions	1,725	0	10
Grants and gratuities	4,197	15	10
Interest	77,951	6	6
Loans repaid	5,943	0	0
Special payments	20,866	5	11
Transport	99	15	8
Miscellaneous services and contingencies	4,189	8	8
Railways	42,061	16	0
Water Police	335	11	8
Harbour Board	335	11	8
Sums refunded	403	19	11
War expenditure	69,499	18	1
Total Expenditure proper	£490,825	12	9

Sums and payments to account not Expenditure proper :—

Advances made	11,534	0	3
Deposits withdrawn	6,443	18	0
Savings bank	10,355	18	2
Remittances and drafts between stations	210,767	5	2
Local money orders	1,598	15	7
Payments on account of Imperial Government Telegraphs	21,667	11	2
" " Cape Government	674	9	3
" " Transvaal Government	28	12	6
" " Mauritius Government	189	13	2
" " St. Helena Government	5	10	0
Investments	78,850	0	0
Land and European Immigration Fund	5,831	13	6
Indian Immigration Trust Board	7,014	4	8
Investments on account of Trust Board	29,072	15	0
Natal Government Railways (construction).	104,952	11	4
Bills receivable	663	10	0
Savings bank, investment account	7,001	0	0
Telegrams, <i>vid</i> Madeira, sent by Sir Bartle Frere in June and July 1879	76	6	9
Total	£987,553	7	3

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS FOR 1879.

Countries	Imports therefrom	Exports thereto
	£	£
Europe—United Kingdom	1,760,429	494,470
BRITISH COLONIES.		
Asia—Calcutta	60,236	8
Hong Kong	2,238	—
Madras	904	—
Africa—Cape Colony	89,449	67,892
Mauritius	25,283	4,014
St. Helena	—	90
America—North Canada	1,040	1
St. Vincent	—	1
Australia—Adelaide	85,618	1
Melbourne	9,780	—
Newcastle, N.S.W.	381	—
South Australia	—	1
New Zealand	2,200	—
FOREIGN COUNTRIES.		
Europe—Sweden	11,760	—
Asia—Foo Chow	6,249	—
Guam	—	19
Africa—Delagoa Bay	2,803	8,498
Inhambane	2,586	2,262
Madagascar	5,196	2,546
Mozambique	1,735	1,896
Quillimane	115	1,537
Zanzibar	827	87
America, N.—United States	94,232	—
Martinique	—	2
America, S.—Argentine Republic	391	4
Brazil	12,814	1
Stores supplied to H. M.'s ships	—	392
Totals	2,176,365	583,711

The total value of Imports during the first nine months of 1880 was 1,650,232*l*.

Exports during the same period were valued at 685,670*l*.

CUSTOMS DUTIES.

	£	s.	d.
Ale and beer (in bottle and in wood), per gallon	0	0	6
Beads, per 100 <i>l.</i> value	6	0	0
Candles, per lb.	0	0	1
Candy sugar, per 100 <i>l.</i> value	6	0	0
Cheese, per lb.	0	0	1½
Coffee, per cwt.	0	6	0
Cotton blankets or sheets, at per 100 <i>l.</i> value	15	0	0
Dried fruits, per lb.	0	0	1
Bottled fruits, per 100 <i>l.</i> value	6	0	0
Guns and gun barrels, each barrel	1	0	0
Gunpowder, per lb.	0	0	6
Hoes, adze-hoes, or parts thereof, not classified as Kafir-hoes, each	0	0	6
Jackets or coats, made of blanketing or baize, or twilled ditto, at per 100 <i>l.</i> value	15	0	0
Picks or hoes, or pieces of iron easily convertible into picks or hoes, each	0	0	6
Pickles, sauces, bottled fruits, jams and jellies, potted fish, and meats, at per 100 <i>l.</i> value	6	0	0
Pistols, pistol barrels, or sets of barrels, each	0	5	0
Salt beef and pork, at per 100 <i>l.</i> value	6	0	0
Sauces, at per 100 <i>l.</i> value	6	0	0
Spirits of all sorts, not sweetened, not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and so on in proportion for any greater strength than the strength of proof, and for any greater or less quantity than a gallon, at per gallon	0	6	0
Sweetened spirits, liqueurs, or cordials, at per gallon	0	6	3
Sugar (not refined), per cwt.	0	3	6
„ (refined), per 100 <i>l.</i> value	6	0	0
Tea, per lb.	0	0	6
Tobacco (not manufactured), per cwt.	2	2	0
„ (manufactured), per lb.	0	1	6
„ (cigars), per lb.	0	4	0
Wine (in wood or bottles), per gallon	0	2	0
Woollen blankets, railway rugs, and manufactures of wool, commonly used as woollen blankets, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value	15	0	0
Goods, wares, and merchandise, not otherwise charged with duty, not prohibited to be imported, and not declared to be free of duty, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value	6	0	0
Upon all wool shipped or landed, for each bale	0	1	0
Upon all goods, articles, matters, or things (except wool, and the goods, articles, and things hereinafter exempted) shipped or landed, for every 100 <i>l.</i> value	0	10	0

Exemptions.

1. Public stores, naval or military baggage and personal baggage of passengers.
2. Ships' stores outwards.

3. Goods shipped upon which wharf dues have been paid upon importation.
4. Products of the colony imported by sea.
5. Coin and bullion.

GOODS DUTY FREE, EXCEPTING REGISTRATION CHARGES.

Animals, living.

Agricultural implements, that is to say, ploughs, harrows, reaping machines, and implements exclusively employed in agricultural pursuits.

Bones of animals.

Books and music (printed), maps and charts, except reprints of works protected by the English Copyright Act, or prohibited to be imported.

Breadstuffs. Bricks and firebricks.

Casks, staves of casks, heading for casks, hoops, and hoop-iron.

Coin and bullion. Coals, coke, and patent fuel.

Cement (Portland and Roman). Diamonds.

Flour and meal (wheaten). Fresh fruits and fresh vegetables.

Grain of all kinds. Grain bags, gunny bags, and bagging.

Guano and other manures. Gums of all descriptions. Ice. Lime. India rubber. Ivory.

Hides, raw and undressed.

Machinery used in the preparation and manufacture of the productions of the soil, and in sawing timber, and in the making of bricks and tiles.

Ores and minerals, crude. Ostrich feathers, undressed.

Peas, beans, and pulse of every kind.

Printing presses and type. Pig iron.

Provisions, stores, and articles of every description imported for the use of Her Majesty's land and sea forces, or for the Colonial Government; provided the duty otherwise payable thereon would be paid or borne by the Treasury of the United Kingdom, or the Government of the Colony.

Railway carriages. Rice. Salt. Slates for roofing.

Seeds, bulbs, and plants, and specimens of natural history.

Tiles.

Uniforms and appointments imported by and for the use of any officers of Her Majesty's civil, military, and naval service, serving on full pay in the colony; or for any militia or volunteer forces in the colony.

Vacoa and wool bags made up.

Wines and spirits imported or taken out of bond for the use of the Governor, and for the use of Her Majesty's military officers serving on full pay in the colony; and also for the use of the officers of Her Majesty's navy, on full pay, and serving on board any of Her Majesty's ships; subject, however, to such regulations as the Collector of Customs shall think fit to make. Provided, however, that if any such wines or spirits so imported shall be subsequently sold in the colony, except for the use or consumption of any of the officers aforesaid, the same shall, unless duty be first paid thereon, be forfeited.

ARTICLES PROHIBITED TO BE IMPORTED.

Books, drawings, paintings, prints, or photographs of an immoral or indecent character.

Coin, base or counterfeit.

Articles of foreign manufacture bearing the names, marks, or brands of manufacturers in the United Kingdom.

REGISTRATION CHARGES ON GOODS DUTY FREE.

	£	s.	d.
Flour, meal, rice, grain, peas, beans, &c., imported, each bag or barrel	0	0	2
Bricks, tiles, slates, coals, coke, patent fuel, pig iron, cement, manure, lime, salt, per ton	0	1	0
Machinery, agricultural implements, and all other free goods, not specified by preceding rates, except goods the property of, and imported for, the Imperial or Colonial Governments, at the option of the Collector of Customs, at per ton	0	1	0
Or per package	0	0	6

INLAND BONDED WAREHOUSE.

In addition to the Customs' duties payable on any home-consumption entry, there is a further charge leviable of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. upon the total amount of duty on the goods specified in said entry.¹

QUEEN'S WAREHOUSE RENT.

Should goods be deposited in the Queen's Warehouse, rent will be chargeable thereon. The tariff is fixed.

BLUFF LIGHTHOUSE DUES.

For every vessel not exceeding 500 tons of burden, which enters inward at the Custom House, a duty of 2*d.* per ton is leviable; and in addition to this duty, for every vessel exceeding 500 tons register, a duty after the rate of 1*d.* a ton for every ton register over the said 500 tons of burden.

PORT AND HARBOUR DUES.

The following are the rates chargeable for pilotage in or out of the harbour:—

	£	
Vessels from 5 to 100 tons	2	} Vessels in ballast, or shifting berth in harbour, <i>half</i> these rates.
" " 100 to 200 "	3	
" " 200 to 300 "	4	
" " 300 to 500 " and upwards	5	
Detention of pilots on board, per diem, 10 <i>s.</i>		

Towage by steam tug:—

	£
For vessels under 150 tons	10
" from 150 to 250 tons	12
" " 250 to 300 "	14
" above 300 tons	15

If steam be got up on requisition of the commander, owner, or agent of a vessel, or of any person acting on their behalf, and if the services of the tug should not be subsequently required, or should the tug be unable to perform the service required, owing to the setting in of bad weather, or to any accident, a charge of 4*l.* 10*s.* will be made.

¹ There is also a trifling duty imposed on a few of the articles already specified. This is done for the purpose of raising funds to repay the Steam-Tug Loan.

In blowing weather an extra charge of 2*l.* will be made within the outer anchorage, or a circle of eleven fathoms of water around it, for vessels up to 200 tons, and 1*s.* per ton for each ton over.

In moderate weather a charge of 4*l.* per mile, and in blowing weather of 6*l.* per mile, will be made for towing beyond the anchorage.

Should the tug take a vessel in tow, and subsequently, owing to bad weather, adverse wind, or other circumstances, be compelled to cast her off, the full charge for towing a vessel will be made.

The tug is not adapted for cargo, but when goods are taken on board, the charge will be 7*s.* 6*d.* per ton, and the Government cannot be responsible for any damage which may occur to them.

The charge for towing lighters in or out will be 4*l.* for one lighter for each trip out or in, and 1*l.* 10*s.* for each additional lighter, the owners being jointly and severally responsible for the payment.

Passengers and cattle will be charged for as follows, for each trip :—

Passengers.—First class, 10*s.* each. Second class, 5*s.* each. Children 2*s.* 6*d.* each.

Cattle.—Sheep, 2*s.* 6*d.* each; cattle, 40*s.* each; horses, 40*s.* each.

Steam will be got up to convey passengers only, on the sum of 5*l.* for each trip being duly guaranteed; and she will be at liberty to take passengers or goods on board when employed in towing vessels.

All passengers and all goods required to be conveyed by the tug must be conveyed to and from that vessel in the boats of the consignees of the ship on whose account the tug is engaged for such purpose.

Any detention of the tug by ships, passengers, or boats, over one hour, will be charged for at the rate of 3*l.* for each hour entered on.

For towing vessels from the usual anchorage near the Custom House to the Bluff Channel, a charge of 5*l.* will be made, provided the time does not exceed one hour, and 3*l.* for each hour entered on over that time. Vessels required to be so moved must first be warped to the tug at her moorings.

If the Government warps are used, a charge of 1*l.* per hour will be made; and if they be wilfully or carelessly chafed or cut, a charge of 1*l.*, on the joint responsibility of the owner, captain, or agent will be made. All applications for the services of the tug in this respect must be made in writing to the Port Captain, and be signed by the commander, or owner, or agent of the vessel, who will be held conjointly responsible for the expense.

EXCISE DUTIES.

There is leviable upon every gallon of rum or other spirits, of hydrometer proof, as denoted by Sykes' hydrometer, made and distilled in the colony, a duty of 2*s.* 6*d.*, and so on in proportion for any greater or less quantity. It is provided, however, that upon spirits made and distilled by any owner or any occupier of any land, from any grapes, peaches, figs, or other fruit, being the *bond fide* produce of such land, there shall be paid instead a duty at the rate of 10*s.* for every gallon of the working capacity of the still so used, for each and every month during which, or portions of which, such still shall be in operation; such duty to be paid by the said owner before commencing to distill.

PUBLIC WAREHOUSE FEES.

For casks, &c., warehoused in the Public Warehouse the following tariff of charges is levied :—

Casks or vessels of the capacity of 19 galls. and under	1d. per week.
" " " 20 " 30 galls.	2d. "
" " " 30 " 50 "	3d. "
" " " 50 " 80 "	4d. "
" " " 80 " 120 "	6d. "

Every 20 gallons or fraction thereof above 120 gallons, 1d. additional.

Broken periods to be charged as one week, and one week's rent to be charged for receipt and delivery.

The following tariff of charges is levied for vessels into which spirits are run off while in the Public Warehouse:—

Flasks or bottles of the capacity of 1 quart and under, per doz. 1d. per week.

Casks, kegs, or vessels of the capacity of over 1 quart and not exceeding 5 gallons ½d. "

Every fraction of a dozen to be charged as a dozen.

Broken periods to be charged as one week, and one week's rent to be charged for delivery.

LICENCES.

	£	s.	d.
Butcher's	3	0	0
Baker's	3	0	0
Billiard Table	7	10	0
Special Licence (Marriage)	3	10	0
Retail shop	1	10	0
Admission of Notary	7	10	0
Wine and spirit (wholesale) per annum	20	0	0
" " (retail)			
In Pietermaritzburg, Durban, or Ladysmith, or within three miles of these towns	20	0	0
Wine and spirit (retail) not in Pietermaritzburg, Durban, or Ladysmith, or within three miles thereof, per annum	8	0	0
Licence to sell any ale, beer, porter, or any other fermented liquors, brewed within the colony, in quantities not less than two gallons	15	0	0
Licence to sell by retail the above, if within the limits of any municipal borough	7	0	0
If not within the limits of any municipal borough	2	10	0
Licence to distill spirituous liquors, for each still used, complete in all parts	1	0	0
Licence for the capture of fish within the bay or harbour of Port Natal	1	0	0
Licence to cut or remove timber from any forest belonging to the Crown will be issued by the Resident Magistrate of the county or division, payment for each saw	1	0	0

TRANSFER DUTIES.

On any sale or exchange of landed property, per cent.	4	0	0
On one-third of the rent of the term of all leases of landed property, per cent.	2	0	0
On the purchase amount of a lease, in addition to the foregoing, per cent.	4	0	

SUNDRY OFFICE FEES.

Each government office has a fixed tariff of fees chargeable; some of the most important are here given:—

Resident Magistrate's office, for every ratification of contract of service made out of the colony	£	s.	d.
	0	5	0
Registrar of Deeds office, for every registration of a cession, or assignment of a lease	0	10	0
For every Joint Stock Company on being registered, or receiving certificate of registration with limited liability, when the nominal capital shall be 5,000 <i>l.</i> or under, the sum of	10	0	0
When the nominal capital shall be above 5,000 <i>l.</i> , and not exceeding 20,000 <i>l.</i> the sum of	20	0	0
When the nominal capital shall be above 20,000 <i>l.</i> , the sum of	30	0	0
By Section 16 of 'The Municipal Corporation Law,' 1872 (Law No. 19, 1872), the Registrar of Deeds is directed to transmit to the town clerk of every borough quarterly returns containing full particulars of all land situated within such borough, transferred during each quarter. For each transfer specified in each such list, the Registrar of Deeds is entitled to receive a fee of 1 <i>s.</i> from the corporation.			
For the registration of any deed of transfer, mortgage bond, deed of hypothecation or lease	1	1	0
For the registration of every notarial bond or obligation in the name of each debtor and each surety, for each debtor and surety respectively	0	6	0
For the registration of every ante-nuptial contract, the same as payable on post-nuptial contracts	1	0	0
For a search of the books of transfer, debt registry, or any other search, for each name searched	0	2	6
For every registration, entry, or other act to be made or done in the Deeds Registry Office, not being any matters or things aforesaid, or otherwise specified by law, but not including endorsements by the Registrar of Deeds on transfer and other deeds	0	4	6
Surveyor General's office, for every certified copy of title deed, exclusive of diagram	1	1	0
For every certified copy of diagram or plan, exclusive of sub-divisions:—			
A figure of less than 20 acres	0	6	0
From 20 to 150 acres	0	15	0
Above 150 acres	1	1	0
For every certified copy of a sub-divisional figure, with or without the surveyor's certificate of reduction:—			
For every sub-division up to 10	0	2	6
and so on			
For examining and laying down a sub-division on the original office diagram, and giving a certificate that the same has been laid down:—			
A sub-division under 50 acres	0	6	0
and so on			
For searching Land Register:—			
For each letter of the alphabet	0	2	6
For every certified extract from Land Register:—			
Not exceeding in length 100 words	0	2	6
For every additional word	0	0	0½

	£	s.	d.
For every reference to any general plan or diagram not included in a title deed	0	1	0
For every reference to a title deed	0	2	6
For a certified copy of Surveyor's inspection report	0	2	6
For every title deed prepared on parchment:—			
In duplicate	0	5	0
A single copy	0	2	6
Register of the Supreme Court's office:—			
For admission as an advocate or attorney of the court having a right under Sec. 16, Law No. 10, 1857	2	10	0
For admission as an advocate or attorney of the court not having a right under Law No. 10, 1857, Sec. 16 (under authority of Rule of Court, dated April 7, 1863)	25	0	0
For admission as a translator of the court	1	0	0

The progress of trade during the last thirty years is well exhibited in the following table:—

Year	Imports			Exports			Revenue			Expenditure		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
1849	55,921	14	1	11,991	12	3	14,331	18	9	19,104	12	2
1850	111,015	11	5	17,109	5	3	32,112	6	4	30,956	8	0
1851	125,462	6	8	21,817	5	0	29,338	4	1	33,600	17	7
1852	103,701	5	4	27,845	14	9	27,158	1	3	24,876	18	2
1853	89,434	13	2	36,458	15	10	28,636	10	10	29,199	8	1
1854	112,492	6	11	43,661	2	0	30,532	13	3	31,623	5	10
1855	86,551	9	9	52,073	8	4	33,310	0	9	28,020	5	8
1856	102,512	4	7	56,562	13	5	34,602	4	2	33,826	9	2
1857	184,549	0	6	82,496	11	3	43,780	7	3	36,438	14	9
1858	172,832	0	0	100,587	0	0	43,991	7	10	39,532	5	10
1859	219,917	0	0	103,966	0	0	50,082	19	4	47,128	9	2
1860	354,987	0	0	139,698	0	0	77,480	8	2	73,002	8	10
1861	402,689	0	0	119,299	0	0	107,465	6	9	113,460	3	6
1862	499,469	0	0	127,288	0	0	98,086	6	3	83,886	2	9
1863	473,333	0	0	158,565	0	0	119,042	5	0	94,033	16	10
1864	591,686	0	0	220,267	0	0	151,049	9	10	137,979	16	11
1865	455,206	0	0	210,254	0	0	118,146	17	4	160,153	8	10
1866	263,305	0	0	203,402	0	0	94,884	13	9	126,067	18	7
1867	269,580	0	0	225,671	0	0	96,780	18	11	118,328	13	3
1868	317,412	0	0	271,949	0	0	95,762	1	11	117,255	11	5
1869	380,331	0	0	363,262	0	0	111,231	19	7	108,406	10	4
1870	429,527	0	0	382,779	0	0	126,293	3	0	117,009	16	8
1871	472,444	0	0	562,109	0	0	125,628	6	6	118,657	1	3
1872	825,252	0	0	622,797	0	0	180,498	12	7	132,978	3	5
1873	1,011,465	0	0	651,028	0	0	207,392	1	9	173,277	15	11
1874	1,121,948	0	0	779,034	0	0	247,259	5	10	306,364	14	0
1875	1,268,838	0	0	835,643	0	0	260,271	8	2	307,025	14	2
1876	1,022,890	0	0	657,308	0	0	265,551	15	4	261,933	17	4
1877	1,167,402	0	0	689,817	0	0	272,473	12	10	283,823	12	8
1878	1,719,562	0	0	694,192	0	0	369,383	16	10	387,067	13	1*
1879	2,176,356	0	0	583,711	0	0	473,478	1	6	490,825	12	9

* Plus 74,644. 13s. 6d. under Public Works Loan for 1878.

MERCHANDISE IMPORTED, 1879.

Articles	Quantities	Values
		£.
Agricultural implements	—	11,320
Ale and beer	492,878 galls.	60,298
Apparel and slops	—	240,381
Beads	74,776 lbs.	2,995
Cabinet and upholstery ware	—	29,785
Coffee	9,468 cwt.	36,739
Cotton manufactures	6,300,633 yards	131,245
Blankets and sheets	193,987 pairs	28,579
Flour, meal, and bran	74,059 barls.	85,176
Grain—Barley and rye	299 qrs.	530
Grain	48 "	75
Maize	10,879 "	17,302
Oats	6,570 "	11,564
Peas and beans	1,138 "	2,328
Wheat	801 "	1,860
Guns and pistols	1,976 in No.	7,207
Gunpowder	116,219 lbs.	3,418
Haberdashery and millinery	—	186,025
Iron of all sorts	2,934 tons	40,370
Ironmongery and hardware	—	971,746
Leather, manufactured	—	99,038
Linen manufactures	672,597 yards	25,940
Machinery	—	21,665
Oilman's stores	—	52,540
Rice	994 cwt.	58,050
Saddlery and harness	1,221 "	52,489
Spirits of all sorts	184,764 galls.	72,472
Stationery	—	23,186
Sugar—Refined	994 cwt.	1,779
Unrefined	1,221 "	1,882
Tea	384,039 lbs.	18,612
Tobacco—Manufactured	305,864 "	14,320
Unmanufactured	509 cwt.	2,119
Cigars	30,443 lbs.	8,805
Woollen manufactures	389,702 yards	19,972
Blankets and rugs	119,872 pairs	61,902
Wines	102,509 galls.	40,779
Value of the above articles	—	1,570,433
Value of all other articles	—	605,932*
Total value of Imports	—	2,176,356

* Railway material included in the above amount, 41,364£.

PRODUCE EXPORTED, 1879.

Articles	Quantities	Values
		£
Aërated waters	26 pkgs.	38
Animals, live—Donkeys	10 in No.	70
Horses	10 "	160
Wild	3 "	30
Arrowroot	2,310 cwt.	3,607
Bacon and ham	6 "	20
Books, printed	19 pkgs.	105
Bones, ox and cow	14 tons	41
Breadstuffs	100 "	60
Carts and carriages	1 in No.	50
Coffee	8 cwt.	23
Curiosities	43 pkgs.	318
Feathers, ostrich	1,867 lbs.	9,410
Flour and meal maize	2 barls.	3
Fruit—Fresh	119 pkgs.	58
Preserved	95 "	242
Grain—Beans and peas	16 qrs.	51
Maize	284 "	267
Hair, Angora	122,417 lbs.	4,897
Hides, Ox or cow	154,893 in No.	341,873
Horns—Buck	6 pairs	3
Ox and cow	45,338 in No.	358
Rhinoceros	42 "	41
Ivory	34,150 lbs.	8,678
Meat, salted and cured	2 cwt.	3
Pickles	1 pkg.	4
Potatoes	35 cwt.	41
Sand, moulding	15 tons	15
Skins—Calf, sheep, and goat	27,563 in No.	1,189
Wilbeeste, buck, and quagga	22,500 "	1,320
Spices, cayenne pepper	57½ cwt.	445
Specimens illustrative of natural history	14 pkgs.	218
Spirits, rum	198 galls.	23
Sugar—Raw	60,201 cwt.	56,956
Molasses	463 "	133
Tobacco, Manufactured	8½ lbs.	1
Unmanufactured	1 cwt.	4
Wool, sheep	12,029,126 lbs.	415,890
Colonial produce	—	540,041
Miscellaneous goods, not colonial	—	43,670*
Total value of Exports	—	583,711

* Included in the above amounts are gold dust and bars, 1,100*l*.

PUBLIC DEBT OF NATAL, 1879.*

Service	Dates when redeemable or terminable	Rate of interest	Total amount authorised	Existing debt on Dec. 31, 1879
Harbour improvement	Oct. 15, 1883 Oct. 15, 1885 Oct. 15, 1887	6 per cent. to bondholders, and 3 per cent. towards a sinking fund	£ 165,500	£ 97,000
Introduction of coolies	Nov. 15, 1896	6 per cent. to bondholders, and 2 per cent. towards a sinking fund	100,000	68,600
Consolidation of public loans	May 15, 1909	5 per cent. to bondholders, and 1 per cent. towards a sinking fund	350,000	166,100
Construction of railways	May 15, 1919	4½ per cent. to bondholders, and 1 per cent. (from Nov. 15, 1880) towards a sinking fund	1,200,000	1,200,000
Indian Immigration	Ditto	Ditto	50,000	50,000
Ditto	Ditto	Ditto	50,000	50,000

PIETERMARITZBURG CORPORATION DEBENTURES.

The Corporation of Pietermaritzburg have issued debentures to the amount of 42,800*l.*, and tenders for the balance of the 50,000*l.* loan authorised by law, 1864, have been called for. The debentures have been issued from par to a premium of 4 per cent., and the majority bear interest at 6 per cent. per annum. An application is being considered by the Legislative Council, asking for additional borrowing powers to the extent of 50,000*l.*, for the carrying out of the following public works:—

	£
Water Works	25,000
Town Hall	15,000
Street hardening and curbing	5,000
Market House	5,000
	<hr/>
	£50,000

* Colonial indebtedness. Queensland has borrowed to the tune of over 42*l.* per head of her population; South Australia, about 30*l.*; New South Wales. 24*l.*; Victoria, 23*l.*; New Zealand, 48*l.*; and Natal a little over 8*l.* 14*s.* per head of her white population.

DURBAN CORPORATION DEBENTURES.

The several amounts of debentures outstanding are:—

	£
General	50,000
Market	3,200
Borough bonded debt	4,000
Durban Toll debentures, first instalment of 25,000 <i>l</i>	5,000

Making total Borough debt £52,000

The foregoing debentures bear interest at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum, and have been issued at par. The last 5,000*l*. worth, however, were tendered for and disposed of at premiums averaging 2½ per cent. The first debentures, in amount 50,000*l*., are redeemable in the year 1906, the last amount, 5,000*l*., in the year 1900, and the others within the next five years.

CONCLUSION.

A VERY cursory perusal of the foregoing pages will show that the colony of Natal, comprising as it does about 450,000 square miles, mostly of rich, fertile land, pleasantly situated and enjoying a genial climate, offers unequalled advantages to settlers who have a little capital to commence with and patience to wait. Idle, dissolute loafers fare no better in Natal than in other parts of the world, whilst the sober and industrious have prosperity assured. The population is estimated at rather more than two millions, of which about 440,000 only are whites. According to a very moderate computation there is room for millions more, especially since, as has been pointed out elsewhere, Natal is but the key to the unknown Dark Continent, and would be to a great extent the outlet for the unknown wealth and future commerce of the interior. In addition, the colony itself abounds in minerals, especially of coal, as is shown by the Reports of Mr. S. W. North; that these deposits will prove most valuable; that if he can trace them over a considerable area they will have great influence upon the important influence of railway extension. In his preliminary Report he stated that he had 'inspected enough coal to supply a production of 500,000 tons per annum for 200 years, and without having made my calculations as to further quantity, I may say that I have inspected as much more since that date.

'The coal near the farm "Oumraki" continues to improve in quality, and will be a good steam coal. Its thickness exceeds my expectations. The usual thickness of the most prized seams of coal in England is about six feet; but this one, as you are already aware, is about twelve feet thick, and contains at the outcrop eleven feet of coal.'

Lest it might be thought that the present writer is unduly prejudiced in favour of the colony, the following extract from General Cunynghame's work, entitled 'My Command in South Africa,' may not be out of place, as it is a complete summary in itself of the capabilities and advantages of Natal. 'The coldest time of the year is our summer, but the climate is delightful, and excellent for pulmonary complaints. The country is very

varied, containing mountain chains, deserts, scanty forests, and boundless plains, once swarming with game, which have been destroyed in enormous quantities. Copper, coal, gold, and diamonds form the chief mineral wealth of the country, but almost every species of metal exists. The chief pursuit is cattle grazing, and the chief export is wool. Fruit-trees grow well all over the colony, and "nartjees" (or Maltese oranges) cost, in the season, a penny for twelve. In Natal, pine-apples grow by the wayside. The vine, apricot, apple, pear, loquat, and cherry all thrive there. Fish are plentiful, and you can live well on that food for sixpence a day; but they are not of so good a kind as those in the northern seas. Housekeeping at Cape Town costs on the average much the same as in England.

'Life proceeds at the colony at rather a slower pace than in England. There is more breathing time, and the happy faces and jovial manner of the inhabitants suggest the idea of a people accustomed to a rude plenty, and not harassed to death by constant worries.'

Practically, therefore, this rising British colony offers an unlimited field for the surplus labour and capital of the mother country, and a steadily increasing demand exists for immigrants. A little temporary inconvenience certainly has existed at times on account of the supply of assisted emigrants having been sent out in excess of the demand, but that inconvenience has been but of slight duration. In Natal there is bread and work for all who will work and are content to take the rough with the smooth.

The growth and prosperity of the colony is best shown by the tabular statement which shows the imports, exports, revenue and expenditure from the year 1849 to 1878, with the progressive increase from 11,991*l.* in the former year to 694,192*l.* in the latter. The year 1879, the year of the war, was so exceptional that it would not be a fair criterion of the normal state of trade and prosperity. Taking, however, the first nine months of the financial year 1880, the imports amounted to 1,650,000*l.*, which would approximate to 2,201,000*l.* for the year's imports, and the exports to 685,670*l.*, or roughly to 914,227*l.* for the year. This shows a satisfactory increase of prosperity, inasmuch as the tendency to import was less, whilst the exports had increased nearly 25 per cent.

The amount of indebtedness of Natal for public works compares very favourably with most of the other British colonies; whilst the last debenture loan, raised in 1879, was issued at

2½ per cent. premium. This fact speaks for itself. Under all these favourable auspices it seems strange that Natal, and in fact South Africa generally, has not occupied a greater share of attention, both from emigrants as a field of profitable enterprise, and from the Imperial Government. It seems to be a very short-sighted policy on the part of the Government that she should not encourage the development of the trade and prosperity of her own colonies. This is the more remarkable inasmuch as the emigrants always speak affectionately of the mother country as their home. Apart, however, from the sentimental side of the question, the development of colonial trade and produce would react upon the home trade manufactures, and we should be doubly benefited.

Respecting the nature of the government, it cannot be denied that the present constitution contains within itself the elements of instability, and a new form of government is urgently required before the colonists can be satisfied. They claim the right to administer the internal affairs of the country themselves, as is done in other colonies which enjoy the privilege of self-government. Of course there is a certain amount of sentimental feeling in this desire for the prosperity of a country which depends more upon the intelligence, sobriety, and industry of the people than upon the actual government. 'Whatever is best administered is best.' Still, the desire for self-control is a very natural one, and one can but regret that Sir Garnet Wolseley should not have recognised this claim, and still more so that it has been so far ignored by the Secretary of the Colonies, the Earl of Kimberley. Sir Garnet Wolseley in his despatches seems to have caused a great deal of soreness, and to have provoked a strong rejoinder from the Natal Legislative Council. The correspondence and papers printed on this subject in the appendix have been taken from a Blue Book recently published, and at the risk of prolixity the more essential parts have been printed in extenso.

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